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ABSTRACT

This report describes a 1998 seminar held to review the situation of higher education reform in Asia and the Pacific region, as well as in some Western nations, and to identify common issues and priorities, and then develop a collaborative framework for addressing these issues and setting priorities. Seventeen participants from 16 countries participated in the seminar. Chapter 1 is an introduction; chapter 2 provides a synthesis of country experiences; and chapter 3 offers recommendations and suggested strategies, addressing the following areas: access, performance, quality, funding, autonomy and accountability, research, and social accountability. Attached are lists of seminar and small group participants and the reports of the two small groups. Appended are country reports for the following nations: Australia, China, Germany, Indonesia, Lao PDR, New Zealand, Sri Lanka, United Kingdom, Cambodia, France, India, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam. Also appended is information about the NARIC network, a system to improve academic recognition of diplomas and study among European nations. (DB)

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# Recent Reform and Perspectives in Higher Education:

## Report of the Seminar Including a Range of Countries from Asia-Pacific and Europe

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# Recent Reform and Perspectives in Higher education:

Report of the Seminar Including a Range of Countries form Asia-Pacific and Europe

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

## *Background*

A significant progress has been made in recent years in the development and strengthening of higher education in the Asia-Pacific region and elsewhere. This has, among others, led to improved student access, strengthened research and postgraduate programmes, more equitable representation of different social groups among graduates, renewed curricula, adoption of new teaching and delivery methods and enhanced institutional management and strategic planning capacity.

At the same time, many nations are still far from achieving number of goals, including the desirable number and quality of graduates set by governments, while facing serious challenges before entering the 21st Century, which come mainly from the following:

- Increasing demand and enrolment, declining public funding and pressure for diversifying funding sources, which requires formulation of a new balance between government intervention, market elements and institutional autonomy and brings about, in a sense, a new and challenging environment;
- Pressing impact of rapid change and progress in science and technology and the information technology in particular on the delivery mode, structure, contents, management and networking of higher education at the system as well as institutional levels, which calls for a paradigm shift in reflection on the role and modality of higher education and provides new opportunities as well in the rapidly coming information society and before entering the 21st century;
- Growing social concern over quality and relevance of programme and courses, mismatch in the demand for and supply of highly trained personnel, which result in both of graduate unemployment on one hand and shortage on the other, a phenomenon occurred in developed, developing and those countries in transition in particular; and
- Series of dilemma facing higher education systems and institutions in adoption of policies and strategies for the 21st century in dealing with issues such as quantitative expansion, equity and quality assurance; marketization, linkage with industry and university, mission and autonomy; networking, internationalization, adaptation and cultural identity; etc.,

In order to cope with these newly arising issues and problems on higher education, NIER organized a *Regional Seminar on Higher Education Reform: Recent Trends and Strategies towards the 21st Century* from 15 to 26 June 1998. This Seminar was convened in collaboration with ACEID, UNESCO Principal Regional Office, Bangkok, within the framework of the Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), and the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) – Regional Centre for Higher Education and Development (RIHED).

## *Objectives*

The purpose of this Seminar was to review the situation of higher education reform in the countries of the Asia and the Pacific region as well as in a few western countries with a view to identifying common issues and priorities and to developing a collaborative framework for addressing the issues and priorities. The Seminar had the following specific objectives:

1) to exchange experiences and lessons in adoption of policies and strategies for the 21st century in higher education at the system and institutional levels in order to face challenges from the rapidly changing political, economic, technological, social and biological environment;
2) to identify trends and priority fields of common interest in higher education and formulation of recommendations and strategies to promote regional co-operation; and
3) to produce a report with participating country case studies and recommendations and finalizing country case reports of the handbook on higher education qualifications in Asia and the Pacific being prepared by SEAMEO-RIHED and UNESCO-PROAP as a practical step for enhancing higher education mobility.

## *Participants*

Seventeen participants from sixteen countries participated in this Seminar. They were from Australia, Cambodia, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Japan, Lao P.D.R., Malaysia, New Zealand, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, United Kingdom and Vietnam. One observer from Japan was also present. Representatives from UNESCO-PROAP and SEAMEO-RIHED also attended the Seminar.

The list of participants, an observer and the NIER staff who participated in the Seminar appears in Annex I.

## *Inauguration*

The meeting was inaugurated by Mr. Shigeru Yoshida, Director-General of NIER; followed by welcome addresses given by Mr. Masayuki Inoue, Director, International Affairs Planning Division, Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho); Dr. Wang Yibing, UNESCO-PROAP; and Dr. Tong-In Wangsothorn, Acting Director, SEAMEO-RIHED.

## *Officers*

The following were elected as officers of the Seminar:

| | |
|---|---|
| Chairperson: | Prof. Leo West (Australia) |
| Vice-Chairpersons: | Prof. Dr. Asarudin bin Ashari (Malaysia)<br>Dr. W. A. de Silva (Sri Lanka) |

Rapporteurs: Dr. Lindsay Stuart Taiaroa (New Zealand)
Dr. Amelia A. Biglete (Philippines)

## *Seminar Procedures*

The Seminar conducted its work in plenary sessions as well as in group sessions. After the first three days, devoted to the presentation of country reports, participants were grouped into two discussion groups for a more thorough and systematic discussion of the country experiences.

After the presentation of country reports, each participant finalized their reports and those country reports are included in Appendix. *[It should be noted that no attempt was made by the secretariat to edit country reports with respect to content and styles of presentation in order to retain the country flavour of each presentation.]*

The morning session on Thursday of the several work was devoted for participants to work together with UNESCO representative to finalize the country reports of *the Handbook of Diplomas in Higher Education in Asia and Pacific* which will be jointly published by UNESCO and RIHED.

The draft final report was presented to the Seminar at the final working session on 26 June 1998 and was adopted with minor modifications.

# CHAPTER 2: Synthesis of Country Experiences

## Rationale for Reforms

The nature of higher education in all countries is shaped by the context of the country itself, reflecting its history as well as its culture. However in the recent decade reforms in higher education in many countries have been driven by a common set of pressures. One can identify a small number of international trends that have been most influential. These include:

- **Social demand** for participation in higher education;
- **Economic growth** and the additional demands it makes for more and better human resources;
- **Globalization**, especially the increasing integration of global and regional economies;
- The **transition to market** economies, most pronounced in countries which were formally centrally planned economies;
- The **new information technologies**.

These trends, both combined and separately, provide a framework for interpreting and synthesizing the recent reforms in higher education. This interpretation forms the concluding section of this chapter.

Ahead of that interpretation is provided an analysis of the nature of the higher education reforms that have occurred. More complete descriptions of the reforms in each country are provided in the country reports in Appendix I, although even these are summaries, in part because of space restrictions, of the more detailed descriptions that were available through discussions to participants at the conference.

## The Nature of Recent Reforms in Higher Education

The participants identified a numbers of areas of reform that provided the basis for the comparative analysis of the specific reforms in each country. The following subset of those areas emerged as the most useful set in the analysis:

- Management, both at the system and at the university level, including developments in the privatization of higher education and/or diversification of public institutions within public system
- Funding, including the diversification of the resource bases of higher education ;
- Institutional autonomy, or perhaps more correctly the locus of control between government and universities for the operation of universities;
- Accountability;
- Access and Equity;

- Quality assessment and assurance; and
- Internationalization.

Obviously, there are overlaps between these areas of reform. The order in which the reforms are described attempts to accommodate obvious overlaps.

**Management, including privatization and diversification**

In all countries governments have developed and supported universities, often called public universities; in some countries there are private universities, sometimes financially supported by the government, and usually regulated by the government in some way. The management of higher education at the system level refers to the supervisory framework between the government and the universities, and the systems used by governments to ensure the implementation of higher education policy in the universities. In some countries, universities have been under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education (under various names); in others there have been intermediate bodies between the government and the universities; in still other countries, the universities have been independent of direct government control.

The reforms in management have involved a transfer of some responsibilities from governments or other intermediate bodies to universities, requiring as a consequence new mechanisms for the achievement of government policy and for accountability, including the implementation of those policies. Some examples will illustrate the range. In Lao PDR, the higher education system was of distinct mainly single-discipline colleges/universities each part of the appropriate ministry. A single, multi-campus National University has been created under the supervision of Ministry of Education, with some limited independence. In Thailand the universities have been separate institutions which could be described, however, as having some similarities to departments of the ministry- the staff are civil servants, the budget is set in a similar way as ministry departments, but with differences in administration. The system is being gradually changed to autonomous universities, first with the introduction of new universities in 1990 and 1992, followed by the conversion from 1998 of some existing universities into autonomous universities. In the United Kingdom, the binary system has been abolished and a new unified system established, under the influence of new Higher Education Funding councils for England, Scotland and Wales. The National Academic Awards Council was abolished, leaving the institutions to award their own degrees.

In countries like Japan, the Philippines and Thailand that already had a private university system, there has been an expansion of that system and sometimes a lessening of government financial support. Some countries have introduced a private system. In many countries the public system has developed many of the practices of private enterprise. A focus on strategic planning, improving management efficiencies, use of management information systems, the use of activities-based-budgeting, ensuring cost recovery, responding to market needs, are some examples. Privatizing or contracting out a range of university services has also occurred. Malaysia has corporatised its public universities, one consequence of which is a reduction in the dependence on the government for the majority of funding. New Zealand universities now set their own fees and compete directly with each other for students. In Indonesia, pilot projects in competitive block grants were initiated in 1994 for developing

undergraduate education and for research in graduate schools.

Another trend is the diversification of higher education. The main feature of this trend is the introduction of new profiles of study programs adapted to professional needs. A second aspect is the institutional diversification by the foundation of new institutions such as technological and professional colleges, the Instituts Universitaires de Technologie (IUT) and Instituts Universitaires Professionnalises (IUP) in France and the Fachhochschulen in Germany.

**Funding and diversification of funding sources**

The most obvious trend in this area is a shift away from public funding of universities, and the introduction of, or increase in, the size of student fees. Other sources of new income include university enterprises, contract industrial research, even investment of government funds already received. Some of these shifts have been dramatic. In China the proportion of the budget derived from government sources is now 53 percent from 100 percent. Some countries, Germany, France and Sri Lanka have resisted fee increases. Explanations of this are explored later in this chapter. Where they have happened, fee increases have led to the introduction of loan schemes in a number of countries. Perhaps the most innovative has been the Australian Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS). Students contribute 20-25% of the cost of their education, but the charge is delayed until the former student commences work. Repayment is through the income tax system, with the levels of repayment being income dependent. Repayment only occurs when the former student reaches a certain level of salary and only occurs while he or she is in employment.

Funding allocation systems have been used by government to balance increased autonomy and to facilitate the implementation of government policy. In the United Kingdom, the level of resources is dependent on a review of performance in the previous year(s). Allocations have also become more transparent, for example the proposal to shift to criteria based funding in India.

**Institutional Autonomy**

There has been a noted shift in the locus of control between governments and public universities in management of areas such as finances, staffing, curricula, and admissions. The introduction of block grants with free movement of finances between budget lines is becoming more common. In those cases, in addition to the retention of audited reports (often by the Auditor General or equivalent), additional financial reporting requirements have been introduced. In some cases these additional data are indicators of operating efficiencies over and above conventional accounting measures.

The common pattern of university staff being civil servants is changing. In China, staff are now university employees; that is also now the case in the autonomous universities in Thailand, and will soon expand. A number of countries retain direct government control over salaries, work conditions, and appointment procedures, but that too is changing. In France the Ministry of Education concentrates on overall regulations and funding, and allows a good deal of autonomy on education, administration and finance.

Curriculum autonomy is surprisingly mixed. Some countries have devolved responsibility for degrees, courses and their curricula to universities. Some have retained direct government approval systems for all or some of these decisions. Countries who have taken the former direction have generally found it prudent to introduce central quality assurance bodies to provide public advice that quality has been maintained in such devolved responsibility systems. French universities can create their own degrees and also diploma 'national diplomas'. In this case they have to periodically submit their degrees to Ministry of Education approval in order to restore the 'national' level.

**Accountability**

As noted above all countries are accountable for their financial performance usually through the Auditor General or equivalent. Accountability has also to be considered in the performance of institutions, in financial efficiency, for example and in the achievement of the missions of higher education- teaching and learning, research, and community services- and to the extent it is quantitative and qualitative.

The evaluation of staff performance occurs within universities, and various countries described their systems. Research performance has always been an integral part of such systems. The evaluation of teaching is increasing as part of these evaluations. Some universities, for example some in Malaysia and Sri Lanka, have introduced special teaching and learning centres to aid the improvement of teaching. Generally the reforms have been in the direction of increasing the amount of evaluation within universities. Some countries require the use of external examiners to ensure the maintenance of standards. In Sri Lanka, for example, external examiners, whenever possible overseas exameners, are involved in the marking of postgraduate examination paper of theses.

Performance measures, of university efficiency, are being introduced in some countries. This trend is following the devolution of responsibility of management to universities described above. Autonomy and accountability are two sides of the same coin.

**Access and equity**

All countries have seen growth in participation levels. Massification of higher education, if not universalization, has been an important objective in many developing countries. Even those countries with relatively high participation rates have experienced growth in participation rates, both from school leavers and those in the workforce updating their skills.

Programs aimed at expanding access to higher education by underrepresented groups include the establishment of open universities in most countries, the establishment of new institutions of higher learning in rural areas (India for example), or for specific groups (women's universities in India), and programs for positive discrimination. Some countries have introduced programs of recognition of knowledge gained from work or non-formal education to assist access for those who missed out on formal schooling (The Philippines, Expanded Tertiary Education Equivalency and Accreditation Program; France with the 'validation des acquis' policy). As part of its profiles process Australia has requested that universities have an 'Access and Equity Plan' with targets

and strategies, and has financially rewarded universities in proportion to their achievement of their targets.

**Quality assurance**

The regular monitoring of quality within universities has been discussed in the section on accountability. At the national level, some countries assure quality through accreditation and registration boards, registering both universities and degree programs. Countries with large private systems tend to use this approach (examples are Malaysia, Japan, Philippines, Thailand) In addition, in most countries professional bodies provide another layer of accreditation

Countries where there is no central accreditation body, especially those which have delegated self-accreditation powers to individual universities have established central quality assurance bodies to publicly report on the quality of universities across the range of their missions. Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom and Thailand are examples. Malaysia has expanded the quality assurance requirements but kept the responsibility within universities by requiring them to achieve ISO 9000 certification by the year 2000.

**Internationalization**

Universities in all countries have always been international in various ways. Some countries have had international relations as part of their quality maintenance and/or accreditation requirements. The Sri Lanka practice of the use of international examiners, already mentioned, exists in various forms in some other countries. The advertising of staff positions internationally also has a long history. So too has the practice of student mobility (often for higher degrees), and staff mobility through sabbaticals. Some countries have for a long time had government programs for promoting visits to their country by students to study language and culture (France, Germany and Japan). But in the last decade internationalization has achieved a much higher profile as an important policy for universities and countries.

Universities have expanded international university-to-university links, often supported with their own funds. These links have resulted in staff exchanges, joint research. Governments have become more willing to financially support these activities. One might say there has been an expansion of top-down support )both nationally and institutionally) for an essentially bottom-up activity, which has led to substantial expansion of this aspect of internationalization.

Leadership in mobility in Europe (the ERASMUS program) provided a model that has been followed in the Asia Pacific region. The UMAPS program has been strongly supported financially by the governments of Australia, Japan, Thailand in its first phase.

A number of countries have become centres for foreign students to obtain higher education especially public and private institutions of higher learning have taught in English (Australia, India, New Zealand, United Kingdom). Malaysia's public and private institutions of higher learning have led the way for providing that trend via its innovation of twinning and franchising programme has led the way for providing for

that trend in Malaysia via its innovation of twinning programs, a model that is being adopted and adapted in other countries (Indonesia hosts international sandwich degrees, some Thailand universities offer joint programs with universities from other countries).

Major strides have been made in the mutual recognition of qualifications. UNESCO has a unique role in the promotion of internationalization of higher education through regional conventions for the recognition of qualifications. Its UNITWIN and UNESCO Chair Programme are aimed at encouraging cross border networks of universities and its partnership building is developed with concerned agencies, IGOs and NGOs such as SEAMEO-RIHED, UMAP, AUAP and ASAIHL.

Major steps for mobility and recognition have been undertaken in the European Union ERASMUS programme for mobility was established, and directives on professional recognition in 'regulated professions' have been issued.

**New information technologies**

Universities were actively involved in the development of computers and have always been at the forefront of the uses of computers. That trend continues. Indeed, the development of e-mail was initially as a means of communication and data transmission between university researchers. The first internet backbone was developed in some countries by universities. However the commercial revolution in very recent years of information transfer and interactivity create a whole new range of uses in university management, research and in particular in teaching and learning. At this time major reform in such uses of the new information technologies is at a very early stage. Participants were convinced that the use would accelerate dramatically. While there was a reluctance to predict the precise form of the impact of information technology, participants agreed that it would be a powerful tool in the restructuring and reengineering of the whole education system.

## Synthesis and Interpretation of Higher Education Reforms

The international trends identified in the Rationale section above provide a means of synthesizing the observed reforms across countries.

**Relationship between economic thinking and higher education development**

Social demands for increased participation in higher education coupled with the human resource demands fuelled by the desire for economic growth mean that in all countries there is a need for the expansion of higher education. This demand is occurring in an economic environment influenced by globalization and the transition to market driven economies. Together, these two trends have led to a particular view of economic management that we might label neo-liberal economics. This economic thinking has been broadly adopted across developed and developing countries, and is evident in the thinking of international economic bodies such as the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund. Among the characteristics of this economic orthodoxy are a number of features that help in understanding the reforms in higher education. These include:

- reduction in the involvement of government;

- corresponding increase in the role of the market;
- reduction in government spending and the achievement of balance budgets;
- a user pays principle for many public services.

So there are these two influences, the need to expand higher education but in an economic environment that mitigates against the traditional approach of opening new universities or expanding existing one by increasing government spending and if necessary increasing government revenues to pay for it. Instead, the reforms described above under the headings of management and privatization, funding and fees, increases in institutional autonomy and reduced direct government involvement, and increased accountability have come into play. As the analysis shows these reforms reflect a high degree of correlation. Countries which have moved a certain direction and distance on the reform path of any one of these reforms have tended to move in a similar direction and distance on the other reforms. The correlation is not perfect, of course, but it is consistent enough to collect these reforms together as one combined reform This combined reform which has occurred in university systems has the following tendencies:

- Devolution of management of universities from a Ministry or a central authority to or to decentralized public body and to the universities across the range of finances, staffing, degrees courses and curriculum, and development;
- Expansion of private universities and/or modernization of public management including increased adaptation of market approaches in public universities;
- Diversification of funding sources including the introduction of or increases in fees in public universities;
- The introduction of additional accountability measures on top of the usual financial auditing and the within universities monitoring of staff and student performance, in particular the introduction of performance measures of university efficiencies and effectiveness.

But countries are not 'clean slates'; they have their own cultures, political and social systems and histories. They have not responded in the same ways. Undoubtedly a detailed analysis could be conducted in each country to understand its particular response, but for the present synthesis it is enough to interpret the extent of reform in particular countries under the influence of the pressure to expand participation and neo-liberal economic thinking.

Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom

These countries have reformed substantially along the direction of these combined reforms. In expanding their participation they have taken a route most consistent with the new economic thinking. However they have not seen the development of significant numbers of private universities although that development is commencing.

China, India, Japan,

These countries have also made major reforms along these dimensions. There is a smaller level of delegation of the full range of responsibilities to the universities and

there is a corresponding smaller set of additional accountability requirements. This difference may be a function of the countries' unique social and political contexts.

Indonesia, Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand

These countries moved some distance down this particular set of reform pathways, and some have indicated they will move further in a measured way. Most countries have been influenced by the present economic crisis which has led them to redirect some reforms and to expand participation in ways consistent with neo-liberal economic thinking. This pressure is most significant in Indonesia and Thailand.

Cambodia, Lao PDR and Vietnam

These countries have seen some reforms along these directions. They have also undergone reforms in moving from systems of universities based on the former Soviet block countries' systems. Lack of government resources and low capacity to pay for users may have slowed the development reform process. It is likely that these countries will continue to develop along this development pathway.

France, Germany, Sri Lanka

These countries have moved least along this development pathway, although in the cases of France and Germany the modernization of public management including adaptation of market procedures has occurred in public universities. Adoption of private sector procedures in public universities has occurred. These two countries have resisted the pressures of the neo liberal economic thinking while expanding participation further from already high levels. Both countries have a history of strong involvement of government in higher education and social acceptance of high levels of higher education participation funded publicly. France and Germany offer an alternative model to that being followed by other countries.

Sri Lanka has made a beginning to substantially expand participation in higher education, but is committed to maintain its current higher education system in that context.

**Interpretation of internationalization reforms**

Globalization has been a major pressure on countries to increase the internationalization of their universities. The common trends in this case have been:

- Student mobility;
- Staff exchange and joint research;
- Area studies and language studies;
- Attraction of foreign students;
- Joint courses across countries;
- Internationalization of curricula;
- Improved recognition of educational qualifications across countries

A feature of the new internationalization has been its regional focus. In the case of the United Kingdom, France and Germany the trends have been strongly encouraged by specific programs funded by the European Union. In the Asia Pacific region, although there is no equivalent of the European Union, regionalism has been most important. Previously, countries in this region developed their international links with their traditional world partners- their former colonial links or those countries to whom they were politically or economically aligned. The increasing integration of the regional economies has led governments of countries in the region to develop policies to strengthen higher education links within the region.

**New Information Technologies**

The development of new technologies has already led to some minor reforms in teaching and research and greater reforms in university management. In management, the new accountability reforms and the management information systems within universities would not have been possible without these new technologies. But the big changes are yet to come.

Distance education providers are already developing teaching approaches that revolutionize off-campus delivery. The capacity of the Internet to provide interactive learning involving teacher to students or student to student interactions, and information research tools, including but going well beyond electronic library access is already established. Authoring systems to simplify the preparation of on-line computer aided instruction are already being used. Who can predict how these changes will change on-campus higher education? How well will future students, bought up on using internet tools (and whatever are their replacements) adjust to our conventional on-campus teaching methods? These questions are unanswered but the raise several important issues.

Countries will be under pressure to develop education delivery systems that utilize the new information technologies both in on and off campus teaching. The up-front investment is large. The West report in Australia estimates an investment for that country of over US$500 million. Can all countries afford that level of investment. If not how will they remain internationally competitive? Or can some countries rely on the developments in other countries? And what impact will that have on their country's sovereignty and independence? Or on the maintenance of their distinctive cultures? These questions require urgent attention.

There is a sub-set of additional threats and benefits too. The internet already allows independent study of courses and degrees delivered by other countries to be taken by anyone in another country with access to the internet. One can only anticipate an expansion of this phenomenon, which already has a name- transnational education. Transnational education exists outside of traditional quality assurance and accreditation procedures? How should countries deal with this?

## Chapter 3: Recommendations and Suggested Strategies

Based on the preceding analysis of recent reforms in the sixteen counties represented, recommendations and strategies for achieving them were developed in eight areas. They were:

- Access;
- Performance;
- Quality;
- Funding;
- Autonomy and accountability;
- Research;
- Social accountability.

The recommendations are directed to governments, interceding bodies and institutions, and focus particularly on the appropriate relationship between governments and institutions and how the overall performance of higher education systems may be improved. Because of the diversity of size, wealth, educational traditions and recent political represented at the seminar, one of the recommendations and strategies may not be appropriate in some countries.

1. THAT equitable access to higher education in Asia and the Pacific should be widened and made fairer in view of the importance of higher education for human resource development and the low participation rates in some countries of the region.

The strategies to achieve improved access may include:

- further development of open learning and distance education institutions exploiting the potential of developments in information technology;
- confirmation of the role of private higher education institutions as set out in the 1995 Regional Seminar on Private Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, Summary and Recommendations;
- diversification of the types of higher education institutions particularly those directed at professional careers and skills shortages in the job market;
- consideration of the self-taught approach to examinations as used in China;
- more flexibility in the organization of higher education including encouragement of part-time, evening courses and improved methods for allowing accumulation of credit and cross-crediting;
- continued access to financial assistance and support particularly for poorer students through scholarships and government supported loans schemes;
- positive discrimination in favour of any under-represented groups in the national community such as ethnic minorities, women and those in rural areas;

- linkages and pathways between different types of institutions to facilitate the progress of students starting from any point in the higher education system;
- Revise admission to higher education approaches or systems.

2. THAT in further development of higher education in all aspects the emphasis and incentives should be on high performance by students in levels of learning; by academic staff in their teaching and research; and by the management of the institutions in the effective use of the resources available.

The strategies to achieve high performance may include:

- regular assessment of the performance of staff;
- regular revision and updating of the curriculum;
- development of appropriate performance indicators;
- professional staff development centres aimed at improving the pedagogical skills of new and existing staff;
- external quality assurance and accreditation structures to assist institutions in their self-assessment of quality and to provide assurance to governments, students, employers and the public of the quality of 'education' provided by the institutions of higher education, both public and private;
- encouragement of international mobility of staff and students to expose them to the standards of other countries.

3. THAT the centrality of quality of education be recognized as an inseparable part of the quantitative expansion of higher education in the region. It is difficult to be specific about what quality is, there being no one international standard. One widely accepted approach is to assess whether a given stream of education is fit for achieving recognized standards for the purposes for which it is designed.

Strategies to improve quality may include:

- the use of external quality assessment and accreditation bodies;
- the use of ISO 9000 techniques, a set of International Standard for Organization;
- the use of external examiners in assessing student achievement particularly at advanced and post-graduate levels;
- close links with the professional, business and other employers to ensure that graduates are suited to the changing needs of the employment market;
- monitoring of graduate employment rates and the types of jobs that graduates are taking up.

4. THAT adequate funding is necessary if institutions are to perform at a high level and provide a good quality education. Although it is generally recognized that diversification of funding sources is desirable and in most cases necessary for improved participation in higher education, the continued role of national and/or regional governments as the major funder of higher education is essential. Continued

investment by governments in higher education should be a top priority for government expenditure.

The strategies to ensure adequate funding may include the following:

- freeing up institutions to develop and retain alternative income sources from research contracting, consulting, university companies, etc.
- the introduction of tuition fees at a significant level with the caveat that fees should not constitute more than 20 -25 % of the unit cost of tuition.
- objective and transparent criteria or formulae for the allocation of public funds to institutions.
- encouragement of private sector support for higher education through scholarship support for students, sponsored chairs, research support and co-operative work schemes.

5. THAT Governments recognize that higher education is best managed and flourishes in institutions that have a measure of autonomy from governments, particularly in academic matters, but also in administrative and financial arrangements. However, increased autonomy also requires accountability.

Strategies to improve the autonomy and accountability of institutions may include the following:

- recognition that the expertise on the academic content and arrangements for the teaching and assessment of learning resides primarily in the institutions and, subject to quality assurance measures, should be the main responsibility of the institutions.
- that governments recognize that more effective and efficient decisions are likely to be made by the leaders of institutions if they have some discretion in setting the priorities for expenditure by their institutions rather than having to work to a line-by-line budget set by central government.
- that the movement away from central control be accompanied by an acceptance of responsibility and accountability by the leaders of higher education institutions for the proper conduct and financial administration of their institutions and this be underpinned by an explicit regulatory framework.
- that detailed reporting on a range of performance measures be expected of institutions including financial accounts.

6. THAT the beneficial effects of internationalization of higher education be supported and encouraged, particularly in view of the integration of regional and global economies without the same time losing local specificity and local cultures.

The following strategies to promote internationalization will assist the process:

- exchange programmes such as UMAP operating at a bilateral level and eventually on a multi-lateral basis.

- continued bilateral and multi-lateral financial support for students and staff to study in other countries with particular attention to the needs of developing countries.
- clarification of the recognition of degrees by one country in another through such means as the UNESCO Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific and the promotion of exchange of information between countries such as that done by UNESCO and national bodies like NARIC in the European Union.
- clarification of the rules for recognition of professional practice across countries.

7. That research as a distinctive feature of higher education, particularly in universities, be recognized and developed throughout the region.

Strategies for the encouragement of research in universities that include:

- appointment of staff with the potential to undertake research or wit a track record in research achievement.
- establishment of competitive research funds for university staff.
- encouragement of post-graduate studies and research.
- close relationships with government research institutes.
- incentives for private sector and public corporations to support university research and post-graduate education.

8. THAT higher learning institutions keep in the forefront of their missions their broad social accountability to the nation and to the communities in which they are located and recognize that high esteem and support will depend on the extent to which they are perceived to play a vital part in satisfying the higher education needs of the community and the region.

Strategies to promote social accountability may include:

- representation and involvement of community representatives at different levels of the institutions such as governance.
- research projects relevant to the local area.
- encouragement of life-long education through university extension or adult education activities directed to the local community.
- involvement in the transfer of new ideas and technology to the wider community.

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Dr. Wang Yibing (UNESCO)

# Annex III: Group 1 Report

This group discussed the areas of reform in detail as applicable to Australia, China, Germany, Indonesia, Lao PDR, New Zealand, Sri Lanka and the United Kingdom. It decided to present its findings in summary form highlighting trends appearing within each area of reform and the differences noticed among the different countries in respect of these trends, the rationale being that such an approach would help to present a vivid picture of the trends operating within the region, their intelligibility in terms of historical background, cultural traditions, level of economic development, etc.

In order to provide an insight into the nature of the group discussion, the position as regards Internationalization and New Information Technologies is provided in detail.

## 1. Management

Both of universities, and the systems of higher education. We included under this heading references to the extent of private institutions and also access and equity.

We found that of the eight countries represented it was possible to divide them into two groups for the purpose of analysis.

The first group of countries had higher education systems based on the British model. These countries were UK, Australia, New Zealand and Sri Lanka. There, the system-wide changes revolved around a breaking down of the so-called binary system, that is the division between the traditional universities and the institutions concerned with higher technologies and also teacher education. In the case of Australia and UK this has meant a major increase in the number and diversity of universities. In New Zealand, although the institutions are administered together in a common system, distinctions between institutions have been maintained but are gradually breaking down. In Sri Lanka there has been structural change with a UGC established in a traditional role since 1977. Sri Lanka has experimented unsuccessfully with Junior Universities and affiliated university college to solve the problem of unemployable university graduates. These institutions offered job-oriented courses. Polytechnics in New Zealand shared the job-oriented motivation although there the development has been more successful. The concept of an intermediate funding body, the HEFC, has been retained in UK also but not in Australia and New Zealand where the key relationship with government is directly with the Education Department or Ministry.

The other feature of the first three countries that was noticeable was the emphasis on strategic and forward planning and more explicit acknowledgement of the contractual nature of the relationship between governments and universities. On the other hand, Sri Lanka has been marked by an absence of major changes in the higher education in recent years.

In the second group of countries, Laos, Indonesia, China and Germany, we had a very diverse group of countries in terms of their size, economic strength, educational traditions and cultures. However, it was evident in three of these countries that there were strong currents for change but not with Germany. In very large countries like China and Indonesia it would be expected that there will be some regions which will

change much more quickly than others. The nature of the change, if not its pace and extent, would be described as a movement away from central or government control (sometimes the relevant government agency is a provincial or equivalent body) towards more autonomy in decision-making by the institutions.

So in Laos we learnt of the establishment of a national university of 9 faculties; in Indonesia, universities now carry out a self-assessment of their needs and those are considered by a new intermediary Higher Education Council. In China the main issue revolves around the scale and speed of development which is being met in part since the 1980s by the establishment of private institutions, although few of them are authorized to issue diplomas. China has had a diversification of institutions notably the growth of junior colleges and adult higher education institutions, and the large number participating in self-taught examination in higher education. In China most scholars hold the opinion that market forces will have to be faced if education is to grow and survive. In Germany too there has been more differentialities of institutions notably through the development of "Fachhochschulen" which emphasize applied sciences and professional oriented education. There are few private universities. There are no private universities in Sri Lanka, New Zealand and only two in Australia and one in UK.

## 2. Funding

The group discussed funding under the following heading:

**Tuition fees**

Tuition fees in some form are payable for higher education in six of eight countries, the exceptions being Sri Lanka and Germany. In all cases the introduction of substantial fees is recent. There are provisions for abatement or means testing in some countries and loans to assist repayment. Fees constitute about 20 % of the unit cost and are moving up.

Government, whether central or provincial, still makes a major contribution in all countries to the public institutions. This varies from almost total reliance on government, to in the cases of Germany or Sri Lanka to minor moves away from reliance on government. In China only 53% of revenue comes from government with the balance from fee (18%) and self intended income (29%). In Indonesia, the government provides 85% but this is expected to decrease with greater income from tuition fees (around 15%).

In the developing countries budgeting is on a line-by-line basis, but more flexibility is developing slowly. The concept of block grants to institutions is practiced in UK, Australia and New Zealand and is being introduced in Germany. Part of the development budget in the third long term Education Plan (1996-2005) in Indonesia is based on a competitive block grant.

Other forms of revenue such as research grants, business activities including investment of resources and endorsements now constitute a significant part of university income where the freedom to develop in this way has been allowed and encouraged. In Australia research grants constitute 25% of income and in Germany professors are

expected to reserve one-third of their funds for research. In New Zealand the total income ratios are government 50%, tuition fees 21%, others 29%.

In general there is an intense interest by the government in the performance of institutions with government money. This is reflected in the accountability procedures.

## 3. Autonomy

The group looked at the extent to which institutions had real independence from government in areas of staff appointments, work practices, salaries and curriculum.

With respect to the curriculum, it appeared that its development was very much in the hands of the academic staff with the provision that if additional resources are requested then government usually has to be involved in some way.

The group reflected on a wide range of practice on the other areas, with almost total autonomy on all aspects given in UK, Australia and New Zealand but more intervention by Government in other countries. As with budgeting though the move appeared to be towards less intervention starting, in the case of staff appointments, at lower level appointments.

In salary setting, the established practice is national salary scales set by Government with the likely movement being towards salaries including promotion set by the university. Australia and New Zealand have recently moved to negotiating salaries either individually or collectively at each university. The main problem is how to pay for any increases.

## 4. Accountability

The group looked at the ways in which institutions are accountable. Although the main acceptability lines are to government, as Sri Lanka reminded us, accountability is also to wider group including the students, employers and professional groups and through community service to the national life generally.

One general point that emerged was that accountability is more important where the system gives greater autonomy to institutions; where the government is already closely involved in appointing key decisions before they happen, accountability is not such as issue.

Australia is a good example of the kind of detailed reporting of financial performance and a large range of data required by the Commonwealth Government on most aspects of the universities' operations. This includes the quality and distribution of graduates and their employment destinations. Similar returns are required in other autonomous systems.

In all systems the Auditor-General looms large. The emphasis in auditing is shifting from merely verifying that funds have been spent according to budgeted authorities towards a value for money approach where the decisions themselves are questioned.

In Indonesia's new paradigm accountability and auditorability will be used to evaluate the result of the institution's performance and it is envisaged that the evaluation will directly effect the resource allocation in the next period.

The research assessment exercise in UK which results in the ranking of departments and affects research funding is a strategy for concentrating research excellence in a diversified university system.

Apart from financial reporting which in general is strict and precise and also the reporting of the student members, other forms of accountability tend to be less formal and more difficult to assess. For example, although it is simple to count research output such as books, published articles in refereed international journals, papers given at international conferences and so on, it is much more difficult to draw that information into a cumulative index. Both UK and Australia have made some progress in this direction.

## 5. Quality

On quality, the group looked at the extent to which the quality of the higher education system was of concern to government and other sectors of the economy and, if so, what new structures or strategies were in use or proposed to maintain, monitor and improve quality.

There was an emphatic 'yes' to quality of higher education being a major concern. This was being monitored in a range of ways some of them common, for example great care over the appointment of new staff and some of them now, for example the introduction of new external quality audit and accrediating agencies. In some cases the power of the external agency lay in its power to formalize in some way, the stick approach in others there were reward for high quality, the current approach as in UK and Australia for research.

## 6. Internationalization

The major change in the region is the turning away from Russia and Eastern Europe towards USA, Japan, Western Europe and Australia. This is reflected in the direction in which postgraduate students are going, the increasing use of English as a compulsory language (e.g. Indonesia) and the establishment of schemes for students' mobility.

A major development outside of government to government or multilateral aid has been the flow of private students on a full-fee paying basis to developed countries.

A major constraint on international activities in several poor countries is the non availability of overseas currency.

*Summary of detail of discussions*

Australia:

Substantial increase in exchange of teachers, student mobility and joint research

especially within the Asia-Pacific region in addition to the arrangements that already existed with USA and UK. Funded by the universities themselves and also by a number of government programmes. Area studies have increased. Government has established a number of study centres, e.g. Thai Studies Centre, Korea Studies Centre, etc.

China:

- International agreements have provided facilities for staff and student exchange, co-operative research, international seminars, etc. Staff and student flows are directed mainly to USA, Japan and European countries. Students from Japan, Korea and south-east Asian countries study in Chinese universities.

Germany:

ERASMUS. Professional recognition in the programme regulated professions within the European Union. Development of recognition in academic areas too. Exchange programmes with other countries. Courses started in the English language in some universities. Bilateral agreement between German and foreign universities and state agreement endorse recognition of study period.

Indonesia:

English language made a compulsory course. Offering of training/sandwich programmes. Exchange of professors and graduate students with foreign universities. Joint seminars and joint research with foreign universities.

Laos:

Links with foreign universities in the field of curricula development. Close connections with universities in Vietnam, Thailand. Participation in seminars and workshops held in foreign universities.

New Zealand:

The main ways of internationalization are: recruitment of academic staff by competitive international appointments; international schools on ODA programme from developing countries in South Pacific and Asia; private international students on a full-fee basis; internationalization of the curriculum and research institutes focussed on Asia; and student exchange and staff research leave at overseas universities and research institutions.

Sri Lanka:

Staff encouraged to proceed to foreign universities for postgraduate studies. Links with foreign universities or organizations established in certain areas of study. Participation in international seminars, workshops and conferences. Co-operation with foreign universities in the establishment of certain new courses. A few government scholarship offered to very bright students to proceed abroad for postgraduate study.

## 7. New Information Technologies (IT)

The advent of advanced information technology for teaching is under way but developments after to be on a bottom-up basis rather than a top-down. Most countries are aware that the potential for change in all aspects of higher education through new communication and virtual technologies are immense but are not yet organized nationally to exploit them. However, the personal computer, computerized databases, the world wide web and e-mail are in common use and are changing the way staff and student's work and the way management system operates.

*Summary of details of discussions*

Australia:

New IT methods are used in classroom teaching in addition to normal methods teaching even resulting in a reduction of face to face contact. New IT methods have been introduced even in distance teaching. Australian universities actually set up Australia's Internet backbone of internal services (initially for use by researchers). Management also conducted with the assistance of sophisticated IT methods. The Open Learning Agency has been able to offer higher education to students, about 25% cheaper than conventional distance education. NTU and other US universities offering degree programmes through IT.

China:

Courses relating to computer literacy developed as compulsory subjects in all universities. All undergraduate and postgraduate students (except doctoral candidates) required to sit examinations conducted by a national agency at the required level. Most university especially key universities and other specialized higher education institutions equipped with modern IT devices.

Germany:

Universities fully equipped with new IT.

Indonesia:

New IT used in teaching, research and management. Wider and faster communication between professors and graduate students through the use of Internet, e-mail, fax, computer and satellite.

Laos:

New IT applied in teaching, research and management, making these processes more efficient than before.

New Zealand:

New IT are being developed at the institutional level but is not co-ordinated in a systematic way. Use of e-mail, world-wide-web is common and sophisticated management information systems are in use.

Sri Lanka:

University staff provided with all facilities to gain proficiency in the use of new IT procedures in teaching and research. Loans offered to meet part of the cost in purchasing PCs and institution provided in their use. Computer used in certain areas of management, especially financial management. Libraries computerized to a great extent. The Open University makes use of radio, TV, audio and video cassettes in delivery.

# Annex IV: Group 2 Report

## PROPOSED RATIONALE

The challenges facing all nations in the 21st century is enormous. Today, the Asia-Pacific region which is about to take off is marked by robust and fast economic growth. However, in a global economy, economic development can not be sustained without the development of human resources. The economies of the future will depend on education and training. The present economic crisis in some Asian countries shows that upgrading of the quality of manpower is a key to ensure the smooth realization of the goal of industrialization and globalization.

The experience of some developed countries like Japan and France and the newly-industrialized countries and territories such as Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan demonstrate the close relationship between HRD and economic development. These countries heavily invested on higher education and training.

It can be noted that many developing countries are now in the process of industrialization, however their level of HRD in general has not catch-up with the demand of industrialization, many failed in achieving industrialization due to lack of qualified manpower.

It is a major phenomenon now that social demand for higher education is increasing in all developing countries. Every developing country is faced with expansion of higher education. This trend is driven not only by employment factors but also social and cultural factors as well as the rapid development of information society.

On this context, there is therefore a need for reengineering and restructuring of higher education and develop agenda of reforms which will turn out highly educated manpower needed to sustain the momentum of continuous development.

## RATIONALE

**Economy**

Malaysia

- From an agriculture-based to an industrialized country
- Manpower requirement for industrialization is totally different, hence thrust is toward human resource development (HRD)
- The private sector play an important role in Malaysian economy, so higher education has to link with the private sector since it is the one which contribute to the major income of the country

India

- Has experienced serious economic problem and so structural reform is needed
- Because of economic crisis, there was a declining subsidy of budget on higher

education

- New economic policy was adopted and this necessitates reform in the higher education system

Thailand

- Thrust is toward agriculture and industrialization
- Need more of high level manpower to suit changing economy

Cambodia

- Old economic system was destroyed by war and they now have moved to market economy
- This has impact to the educational system particularly to the higher education

Vietnam

- Has experienced change in the economic system similar to China and so has shifted to market economy
- Goal is to become an industrialized country by the year 2020

Philippines

- Agriculture-based economy but moving towards becoming a newly-industrialized country by the year 2000
- To achieve this goal, the thrust of higher education is to accelerate HRD in the area of engineering, science and technology
- The new administration is set to put emphasis on agriculture development, hence agriculture education needs to be improved and rationalized

France

- Already a developed economy
- There is high level of unemployment at present due decrease of industrial traditional sectors and due to international competition
- There is a need to raise the general level of qualifications of the active population in order to meet new requirement of the information society with many high added-value activities
- The trend now is to produce more graduates with higher qualifications
- Has very small private higher education sector
- There is a gradual increase in involvement of private enterprises in the design of professional courses together with the universities

Japan

- Already a developed economy
- Has very serious economic crisis at present
- Has many new types of private universities

UNESCO

- Developing countries are in the process of industrialization, however this requires

higher level of qualifications of manpower

- Level of HRD of developing countries has not catch-up with the demand of industrialization, some failed in achieving industrialization due to lack of qualified manpower
- Developed countries are in the process of moving toward information society

**Social Demand**

Malaysia

- Education is unevenly achieved, the level of education of urban people are higher than rural people
- The underprivileged group needs to be subsidized to pursue higher education
- Quality of education is a factor in social demand

India

- Social demand in higher education is increasing largely
- Everybody is realizing the importance of higher education in getting better job, having better life
- There is direct relationship between qualifications and employment
- There is a need for more highly educated labor force
- Employers prefer graduates of higher education

Thailand

- Priority is on engineering and technology, health science and medical sciences. These professions are attractive because they are high-paying jobs
- There is an issue of high cost of higher education, government can not provide all of the support
- There are not enough qualified teachers

Cambodia

- Most higher education institutions can not respond to the demand of the private sector for quality graduates
- There is a big difference between the quality of graduates from the urban and rural areas

Vietnam

- Those from the remote areas have difficulty pursuing higher education and so there is a need to provide subsidy to education
- There is a social demand both for quality and quantity of output of higher education
- After graduation, graduates have difficulty of finding jobs in the labor market

Philippines

- Social demand for higher education is very high as reflected in a very big college

population

- Filipinos put high value on college education as a means of increasing one's employability and improving social status
- Employers have a natural preference for better quality workers, that is, demand is great for highly-trained and qualified manpower

France

- Social demand for higher education is also increasing
- People with higher qualifications get employment faster than those with lower qualifications
- Some individuals are overqualified to the job positions they are occupying
- There is a need to provide equity among various social groups and reduce disparities among regions, but the issue of quality should also be considered in expanding higher education institutions

Japan

- Social demand for higher education is Increasing, especially the perspective of lifelong learning society
- University graduates are easier to get job and high status in society than other higher education institutions graduates

UNESCO

- Social demand for higher education is increasing in all developing countries
- Every developing country is faced with expansion in higher education
- Social demand is driven by various factors not only employment factor but social and cultural factors

**Information Technology**

Malaysia

- Policy has changed to emphasize the use of technology in the classrooms
- There is now a trend to change the delivery of education with the use of technology
- SMART schools were established
- Government is asking private institutions to get involved in information technology

India

- Computer literacy is introduced starting in the primary school
- There is a growing effort in the various universities to deliver education services through the use of automated or satellite network system
- Advanced technology has improved the system of delivery of education but we should not forget that actual teaching in the classroom is still the best method

Thailand

- Same for Malaysia and India, there is a global trend on the importance of information technology

Cambodia

- There is a need to strengthen information technology, however government does not have the capability to support it

Vietnam

- Same as in other countries, information technology is given importance
- There is an effort to import high technology facilities

Philippines

- The importance of information technology is being realized in almost all sectors of the society
- Degrees on information technology-related programs are now very attractive to college entrants
- There is now proliferation of program offerings on computer science, information technology and information management in the higher education institutions
- Principles of education are changing with the introduction of advanced technology

France

- New technologies should be part of the general education curriculum beginning in the primary school and there is a need to provide the needed facilities
- There is a general trend to establish computer literacy in the society
- Technology helps in the efficient and effective management of higher education institutions

Japan

- Computer application is widely used in school as well as home
- Nationwide coverage of the university of the air is being promoted
- Some university professors conduct lectures through satellite

UNESCO

- Information technology has impact on higher education
- The rapid development of information society has increased the demand on general level of education of citizens
- Information technology has created the need for higher education reform
- There is a need for reengineering and restructuring of higher education to be more flexible, more open in dealing with lifelong education

**Globalization**

Malaysia

- There is free movement of information, labor, finance and expertise
- Globalization is an important aspect of modernization
- INTERNET is part of globalization
- Examples of globalization in education are franchising and twinning programs

India

- Globalization offers a lot of opportunities, it created a different demand for higher education
- Higher education has to respond to new challenges of globalization

Thailand

- Globalization promotes cooperation and competition
- Educational policy in Thailand is to become the leading center for international study

Cambodia

- Globalization has stressed the need to cooperate with other countries
- Has been receiving a lot of help from many countries

Vietnam

- Similar to Thailand, globalization promotes cooperation and competition

Philippines

- Globalization is being addressed by intensifying efforts on internationalization of Philippine higher education through establishment of international linkages/consortia or twinning arrangements, and networking including faculty exchange
- There is a need to globalize and internationalize higher education and thereby produce globally-competitive workforce

France

- There is more involvement of foreign researchers (international research programs, exchanges of academics and students, participation of foreign researchers and academics in evaluation processes, etc...)
- European Union supported research and education programs promote for European and international cooperation
- Universities in the European Union are developing systems where students can register their study program in home country and complete it partly in another country

Japan

- The trend is a movement of globalization and information technology
- Has a big number of foreign students from Asian countries

UNESCO

- Globalization of economies like in the European Union requires internationalization of universities
- Regionalization of economies like in the ASEAN requires mutual recognition of qualifications
- Globalization is also driven by new information technology
- Impact of globalization has created a need to restructure or reengineer higher education, the need to keep on updating higher education programs, and be more active in developing networks, international activities and exchange programs

**Transition**

Malaysia

- There is a transition from agriculture based to manufacturing economy

India

- No comment

Thailand

- There is a transition from imported technology to producing technology, from agriculture to manufacturing and advanced technology production

Cambodia

- There is a transition to market economy, however this is creating a problem of developing a new culture and attitude in the society

Vietnam

- Same as Cambodia

Philippines

- The transition is the move towards becoming a newly-industrialized country

France

- Transition from traditional industrial activities towards high added-value Industrial and services activities

Japan

- There is an existence of centralized and bureaucratic system
- The market economy has changed autonomous universities into market-oriented universities

UNESCO

- There are three types of transition: 1) transition toward information society; 2) transition from agriculture to becoming newly-industrialized country; and 3) transition from centralized to market system
- All types of transition require fundamental change in higher education

## AREAS OF REFORM

### Quality Assurance

Malaysia

- There is shortage of human resources for development so there is a need to improve quality of production
- Presently, most universities are doing quality improvement such as endeavouring on Total Quality Management (TQM)
- Most universities are targetting to achieve ISO 9000 by year 2000 whichh will focused to core areas.
- Quality assessment is in the areas of staff assessment, department assessment, quality management, and networking
- There is an existing professional assessment for professional curricula
- For private institutions, there is National Accreditation Board while for public institutions, accreditation is under the advice of the Vice-Chancellor Council and the Ministry of Education.

India

- There are two aspects of quality assurance: 1) establishment of Center/National Accreditation Council for public universities; and 2) there are professional associations such as in law, medicine, dentistry, etc.
- There are institutions which provide training programs to address the training requirements of teachers

Thailand

- There is a need to develop quality assurance standards in institutions of higher learning, hence every university has to develop evaluation instruments to determine quality
- In the case of private institutions, there are external examiners from the public universities and business sectors
- By the year 2002, universities have to be autonomous and so they have to do quality improvement

Cambodia

- Higher education is in early stage of development
- Has recently reviewed the higher education system and the concern now is on improving quality and quantity
- Due to economic problem, priority shall be on improvement in quantity followed by improvement in quality

Vietnam

- The Ministry of Education and Training emphasizes quality improvement in higher education through the support of the World Bank by requiring teachers to attend trainings and update their competencies

Philippines

- Quality assurance must include measures of quality and efficiency
- At present, there are four ways by which quality of higher education is determined in the Philippines: 1) compliance to minimum standards for the different disciplines prescribed by the government; 2) program accreditation (voluntary in nature); 3) performance of graduates in licensure examinations; and 4) employability of graduates
- There is double standard in implementing the minimum standards. The private institutions have to comply with the standards set by the Commission on Higher Education in order to get a permit to operate or open courses/programs and have to obtain recognition of programs in order to be allowed to graduate students. While in the case of state colleges and universities, it is the Board of Regents/Trustees which approve the program offerings

France

- Assessment of institutions is done periodically by a National Commission for evaluation, whose members are appointed from the academic staff of the universities, researchers and other resource persons.
- The criteria for determining the quality are the following:, research, teaching activities, involvement in administration and other tasks such as student academic counselling.
- It is foreseen that teaching performance of faculty members should be assessed by the students.
- Engineering schools have Improvement Boards (with corresponding professionals and alumni) which are responsible for keeping or maintaining the quality status of these Schools.
- Universities have to develop internal assessment systems.

Japan

- Teaching qualification is not a requirement in the university but recently training programs for teachers were introduced to improve their teaching competencies
- Universities are required to have curriculum reform and assessment
- National universities have to conduct self-monitoring and self-evaluation which focus on teaching activities and research
- There is Council of Standards of Universities which is the agency responsible to establish accreditation system

UNESCO

- Quality assurance mechanism being adopted by developed and developing countries are almost similar
- The concern is on the relativeness of the concept of quality
- There is no universal definition of quality
- Quality is not context free
- Quality is difficult to measure but there is a need to measure the progress from

input to output

- There are various scales of quality assessment
- Educational standards are also relative

**Funding**

Malaysia

- Before corporatization of public IHLs, funding for the public higher education institutions is fully funded by the government. After corporatization, funding to IHLs is only for management purposes whereas development fund has to be acquired by the concerned institutions
- Student funding to IHLs can be classified into: 1) full support ; 2) loan; and 3) self
- The National Higher Education Fund Corporation was developed to assist student funding to public and private IHLs and provide loan to them.
- Private institutions have their own funding on their actitivities.

India

- The universities are largely funded by the State, allocation is based on block grant system
- There is now a significant shift of responsibilities in funding from the State to the students
- There are two important aspects of funding: 1) mobilization of government resources; and 2) allocation of funds
- Before there was no incentive to generate income, however, the universities now are encouraged to generate funds. The incentives are: 1) government will provide a matching grant; and 2) the universities are free to use the fund
- Loan programs (e.g. student loan scholarship program) are reformed

Thailand

- There are five aspects of funding 1) funding for public institutions comes from the government; 2) reformation on extensive loan program and provision of more scholarship; 3) connection with autonomous universities (block grant); 4) networking in terms of library facilities, teaching staff, space, resources; and 5) more cooperation with the private and business sectors

Cambodia

- Private institutions are not provided funding by the government
- Free higher education in the public institutions
- Because of difficulty of budget, public institutions are allowed to generate income
- Most of the budget of public institutions comes from contributions from: 1) government; 2) student fees; and 3) individuals such as businessmen, politicians
- There is problem of management of income from private sources
- Other sources of funding: bilateral, NGOs, donors

Vietnam

- For public institutions, originally, budget comes mainly from government but now funding comes also from tuition fees
- For private institutions, no funding from government

Philippines

- Underinvestment has been a pressing problem in higher education which is a big constraint in ensuring and maintaining quality
- Although the trend of budget allocation is increasing in the case of public higher education institutions, the budgetary requirements for operations are also continuously increasing
- The public institutions are mainly supported by the national government while the private institutions rely mainly on tuition fees
- Very little subsidy is being given by the national government to the private institutions, only in terms of student scholarship and faculty development
- To strengthen higher education in the Philippines, the Higher Education Development Fund was established to provide support to higher education institutions in terms of scholarship assistance, faculty development, facilities upgrading, research and networking activities

France

- Government contributes more than 80% of the funding of universities
- Registration fees for public institutions of higher education are determined each year by ministerial decree
- The study fees are low in public institutions, without any proportion to the cost of studies
- Universities are encouraged to increase resources by developing new activities based on a cost recovery principle, such as courses for continuing and adult education, contracts with corporations for research, expertise or education of their employees, greater involvement in projects sponsored by local authorities, etc.

Japan

- National universities depend on funds provided by the government
- Government funding is concentrated on traditional universities such as University of Tokyo
- With the increase in the number of private universities, the public institutions are affected
- Grants-in-aid from the central government for scientific research is increasing

UNESCO

- The common trend now are: 1) diversification of resources; 2) government funding modalities are changing; and 3) increasing use of market mechanism in providing funds
- These have fundamental impact on the institutions of higher learning and the

whole campus culture

**Institutional Autonomy**

Malaysia

- The public and private universities are under the jurisdiction of the newly established Educational Acts (5 Acts) and the control of Ministry of Education
- After corporatization oh public IHLs, certain degree of autonomy was given to the universities
- In terms of administrative autonomy, universities are under the juridistion of the Public Service Commission and the Ministry of Education
- In terms of academic autonomy, there is more freedom in developing new courses, curriculum with the advice from the Vice-Chancellor Council and the Ministry of Education
- In terms of financial autonomy, the universities have freedom to use the budget as allotted by the government
- Private IHLs have their own form of autonomies. They have common Inter-Institutional arrangement that the PHEIs have Involved with the foreign education Institutions, leading to Bachelor degree are: Twinning Degree Programmes, Credit Transfer Degree Programmes; Advanced Studies Programmes; External Degree Programmes; Distance Learning Programmes and Jiont Programmes.

India

- There are three dimensions of institutional autonomy: 1) administrative autonomy; 2) academic autonomy; and 3) financial autonomy
- The universities have no financial autonomy, most are decided by the government
- The universities have academic autonomy in developing courses and curriculum
- Colleges do not have administrative autonomy
- Autonomous colleges are set-up

Thailand

- Only four universities are autonomous presently and universities block grant funds which are subject to post-auditing system
- By year 2002, all public universities should be autonomous universities
- Right now, all public universities have also some autonomy for example in the area of curriculum and administration
- Private universities have to follow the standards set by the Ministry of University Affairs

Cambodia

- There is no full autonomy for the universities
- In terms of financial autonomy, no autonomy for budget coming from government but full autonomy for budget coming from tuition fees and other income

- In terms of curriculum development, they have the autonomy
- The Ministry of Education has full control in the issuance of degree

Vietnam

- Less autonomy was granted before to the universities, but now more autonomy are given especially to the national multi-disciplinary universities
- There is a need to match autonomy with accountability

Philippines

- The state universities are autonomous by virtue of their charters, they have the curricular autonomy
- By virtue of the Higher Education Modernization Act of 1997, state colleges and universities have fiscal autonomy in terms of use of income and setting of tuition fees (socialized tuition fees)
- In the case of private higher education institutions, they are deregulated if their programs offerings are Level III accredited
- Private higher education institutions can increase tuition fees annually provided proper consultations are conducted and that out of the total proceeds from the increase in tuition fees, 70% should be used for salary increase of faculty and staff, 20% should go to facilities upgrading, and 10% as return on investment for the stockholders or school owners
- All higher education institutions enjoy academic freedom as provided in the Philippine Constitution

France

- Universities' Autonomy within the framework of the national government regulations,
- Universities' Autonomy is three-fold: 1) administrative autonomy; 2) financial autonomy; and 3) educational autonomy,
- In terms of administrative autonomy, the university is run by a president elected for 5 years by the 3 councils of the university (governing board, research council, studies and students'activities council). He cannot be immediately reelected,
- In terms of financial autonomy, the institutions manages independently the funds allotted by the government as well as its own resources of public or private origin, with exception of tenured personnel, paid on the Ministry of Education budget,
- In terms of educational autonomy, the institution establishes the curriculum, the teaching methods, assessment and examination procedures, within the framework of national regulations to be granted the "national diploma" label

Japan

- National universities have administrative and educational autonomy, but no financial one
- Each university develops its own degree or curriculum
- In terms of financial autonomy, the universities are encouraged to move toward reduction of public funding and increase funding from the private sector

- All universities have the pressure to be accountable to the government, they have the responsibility to reform themselves

UNESCO

- There is quite a variation in terms of institutional autonomy in different countries
- The major trend is to give more autonomy to the universities
- One concern is the balance between State control and the university autonomy
- There are different views of autonomy between the institutions and the government

**Management**

Malaysia

- In public and private IHLs, management organization operates differently especially the organizational structure of the institution. These instituituons governs by the Education Act 1996.
- For the public IHLs under corporatization, they have freedom to restructure the portfolio of appointment and academic management.
- In private IHLs, the organizational management is more on their own Initiative.Academic management and freedom are conffered by the Educational Act 1995.
- India
- Establishment of universities is done by legislation, colleges are established by the government
- Universities have their own university boards
- Staff appointments are largely dependent on the university boards
- Teacher salaries in all public and private institute of higher learning are subject to government regulations
- Top-level management bodies are government representatives
- Student admission policies in most universities are determined by them

Thailand

- Management procedures will be changed at the national and institutional levels
- There will be a gradual change to privatization and corporatization
- There will be change of administrators with strong leadership
- Networking and efficiency in operation will be encouraged
- Public universities have a Council of Presidents which meets quite often to discuss issues together

Cambodia

- At the macro level, all institutes of higher learning are under the control of the Ministry of Education

- Degree programs of the institutions are approved by the government
- For non-degree programs, the institutions have to get approval from the Ministry of Education
- At the micro level or institutional level, very few institutions have governing boards
- Two options for the future are: 1) to combine or merge some of the institutions; 2) establish one Council at the national level to be chaired by the Minister of Education

Vietnam

- At the macro level, there is a plan of reforming educational management from a system of centralization to decentralization
- More authority will be given to universities especially to the national universities
- The universities will be given complete autonomy

Philippines

- State universities and colleges have Board of Regents/Board of Trustees which formulate and/or approve all policies, rules and standards of the institutions, the implementation of policies and management of the institutions are vested in the administration headed by the President
- Establishment of state universities and colleges as well as conversion of high schools to colleges and colleges to universities are done by legislation
- It is the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) which decides on the application and grant university status to private colleges using set of guidelines and standards
- To open or establish a private institution, there is a need to register first the corporation at the Security and Exchange Commission and then apply for a permit to operate or open a program from the CHED

France

- The universities have internal statutory authority
- There are overall regulations from the national government
- As far as staffing is concerned, staffing is made by the government, however, the universities can propose to the Ministry of Education for change in staffing, more adapted to their needs.
- The universities select or choose their faculty members from academics and researchers meeting national established requirements.

Japan

- At the national universities, faculty are responsible in all kinds of activities, while in the private universities, the governing boards take the responsibility
- Through the University Council, the universities are required to do the following: 1) there should be proper representation in the Committees; 2) university must get opinion from outside universities; 3) must publish own information to the public; and 4) must emphasize non-teaching staff load

UNESCO

There are two issues or concerns:

1) The atmosphere now is moving towards decentralization, autonomy, corporatization and so the university boards become important. However, the decisions of the boards could be influenced by many factors, politics may come in.

2) The managers are very important in the success of the institutions of higher learning. There are two types of a manager: a) a manager who used to be a professor; and b) a career manager. Staff development and training will play a key role.

**Internationalization**

Malaysia

- English and Malay are the medium of instruction used at the IHL. English is more used at the post-graduate levels with international students registration. .
- Public IHLs have multilateral agreements both for academic and institutional development at national and International level.
- The private IHLs are also encouraged to have multilateral agreements with foreign universities in the form of academic importance such as twinning programs etc.

India

- Internationalization has been there for a long time
- There has been exchange programs between India and foreign universities in research, exchange of faculty, etc.
- A great number of foreign students come into the country
- A good number of universities have centers for certain areas such as for Chinese Studies, Russian Studies, Center for Research Studies, etc.
- As far as mutual recognition of degrees is concerned, there is no credit transfer to India from other foreign countries

Thailand

- Internationalization closely link with information technology
- On student and staff mobility, there are lots of exchange programs
- Thailand aims to become the leading center for International Studies

Cambodia

- Has international linkages with universities abroad especially with the Australian and French universities
- Linkages are in terms of on-the-job training of students, provision of equipment and books, etc.
- Many institutions are now offering special programs, students are encouraged to

learn different languages such as French and English

Vietnam

- Has linkages with different universities from other countries
- Has existing curriculum development network
- Still developing some experience in internationalization

Philippines

- Internationalization of higher education began as far back as the 16th century to 1898 upon the coming of the Spaniards to the country, the Philippines was considered as the first country in the Far East to become westernized and adopt the institutions and ideas of the Western Europe
- After Philippine Independence in 1898, educational scenario changed during the American regime, the present system of education is patterned after the American system
- Toward the period 1946 to the present, several activities or programs have been initiated such as inter-institutional partnerships and networking, international scholarship, twinning and bilateral cooperation programs, mutual recognition and equivalencies, internationalization of the curricula, research networks, etc.

France

- Universities have international linkages with foreign universities
- Universities have many bilateral or trilateral agreements or joint programs
- Under the European Union, there are schemes for cooperation among universities in terms of research activities and utilization of research results, utilization of facilities and laboratories, exchange of students, etc.

Japan

- Internationalization has been one of the most important issues for the last 10 years
- Universities have existing linkages with European and Asian universities
- Some private universities have foreign professors and a few have foreign presidents
- Some graduate schools have programs on environmental studies, peace studies
- Based on the recommendation of the Research Council, the universities have to exchange researchers in the world
- MONBUSHO is providing opportunities for Asian researchers to come to Japan

UNESCO

- Internationalization is not a new phenomenon
- Increasing internationalization is driven by globalization of economies and advancement in science and technology (e.g. Internet)
- UNESCO has important programs such as Culture of Peace to promote mutual understanding specially for the youth
- One problem of internationalization is brain drain, UNESCO's thrust is to ease

brain drain

**New Information Technologies**

Malaysia

- Technology advancements influences the teaching, curricula development, research and management activities of the universities and are encouraged to practice to classroom teaching.
- SMART schools were established for the development of the required manpower for industrialization
- New programs are being developed in the areas of computers, and curricula etc.

India

- For the last 10 years, we can no ignore the importance of technologies
- The use of information technology is of two kinds: the conventional universities which still use chalk and talk method with the use of technology to a certain degree, and the open universities and open learning system which are very dependent on new technologies such as videos, Internet, etc

Thailand

- The situation is the same as in Malaysia and India
- Public and private universities use more of new information technologies such as computers and internet
- Open universities utilize technologies on teaching and learning
- There is government policy to promote information technology (IT) campuses of public universities
- Cambodia
- Has very little development as far as new information technologies are concerned
- The constraints are limited funding and human resource

Vietnam

- New information technologies have pressing impact on the delivery mode of education and management
- New information technologies lead to modernization of delivery methods

Philippines

- New information technologies have influenced the existing system of delivery of education, it resulted to the development of alternative system or different modes of delivery of education services
- The number of institutions establishing open universities and offering open learning and distance education programs in the Philippines is increasing, however, very few have adequate information and communication facilities, qualified faculty, and instructional materials

France

- The use of new information technologies in teaching is being promoted
- Plans to have "computers for all" have been designed
- New technologies are used in the management of the universities

Japan

- Has a very good National Institute of Multi-Media Education
- Over 60 universities have satellite networks (Space Collaboration System)
- Many students have owned computers
- Many universities have established distance learning or distance education programs using new media

UNESCO

- UNESCO has a program called learning without frontiers:
- promote the role of ICT for education purpose
- promote open and distance education
- It is still early to predict the impact of information technology as a very powerful tool for restructuring and reengineering of the whole educational system
- Information technology makes the gap wider between those that have and those that have not

**Accountability**

Malaysia

- In the public sector services, there is an annual staff assessment.
- Most public IHLs academic staffs are evaluated by students
- The universities are concerned with the full utilization of resources
- For the private IHLs, accreditation and quality assurance is a must
- The thrust is to put academic excellence in public and private IHLs

India

- Accountability system in universities is weak in the country
- Every university is subjected to an annual evaluation
- In terms of financial accountability, there is regular auditing of the use of funds
- In terms of academic content, there is no accountability
- There is social audit, i.e. accountability to the society

Thailand

- Accountability of universities is according to the missions of Thai universities: 1) teaching (quality and quantity); 2) research (quality and quantity); 3) academic services; and 4) identity of Thai education, cultural preservation along with

globalization and internationalization

Cambodia

- Still in the transition stage and so accountability is a very new area

Vietnam

- Autonomy is matched with accountability
- The universities are required to improve staff performance and efficiency and effectiveness

Philippines

- The system of accountability for state universities and colleges is not yet very well established, they get budget allocation from the national government not based on performance but on needs taking into account the existing and proposed programs and enrolment size
- The utilization of budget by state universities an colleges is subject to government accounting and auditing rules and regulations
- The private institutions operate based on the rules and regulations promulgated by the government

France

- Faculty are not assessed every year, but on all important steps of their careers,
- The universities are globally and periodically assessed by a national independent authority,
- There is spontaneous evaluation of the universities by the media,
- The universities have to submit information to the Ministry of education if they want to retain accreditation of their degrees, and granting of the "national diploma" label,
- University accounts are audited every year

Japan

- There is accountability movement in the public institutions
- The universities must be accountable to the society, to the taxpayers
- Teachers are evaluated by students in some universities
- Universities must introduce external evaluation system

UNESCO

- Autonomy and accountability are the two sides of the coin
- The universities say they lack the autonomy but the government will say they already have the autonomy
- The accountability movement may be a burden on the universities if the preparation and publishing of annual reports, etc. consume too much time and energy of the universities. There is a need to simplify procedures

**Access and Equity**

Malaysia

- There is a general shortage of manpower in most sectors of the economy. Different strategies are being developd to enhance the production of qualified manpower.
- Equal access to HH. with emphasis to technical, science and technology Is emphasized.
- Education is the main form of manpower development for the country

India

- There is a policy that no academically deserving students should be denied of education
- There has been expansion, demand for education
- Women are given preference to admission and given better scholarships
- There is a social relaxing admission policy for the socially-economically disadvantaged individuals
- There are no reservations for religious minorities
- Priority of the government is the establishment of women colleges and colleges in the rural areas
- There are now 6 open universities (one has jurisdiction for the whole country and the other five caters to other areas)

Thailand

- There is national entrance examination which is very competitive
- By 1999, there will be a drastic change to assess the performance of students using scores from secondary school(10%) and scores in main subjects and in special subjects (90%) and interview/physical examination(pass/fail)
- Many universities adopt the quota system
- Enrolment in open universities is quite big, about400,000 at present
- Private institutions are now becoming popular
- There are 24 public and 41 private higher education institutions

Cambodia

- Private higher education institutions have no entrance examinations for students, admission is open, they just apply

Vietnam

- Enrolment in higher education institutions is increasing rapidly
- Has 110 public and 16 private higher education institutions

Philippines

- There are 1,282 higher education institutions located in the different parts of the country

- During the last five years, scholarship programs were expanded, more scholarship slots were made available to poor but deserving Filipino students
- Alternative modes of education are being developed and promoted such as open universities, open learning, distance education programs to provide more access to students
- The Expanded Tertiary Education Equivalency and Accreditation Program (ETEEAP) was institutionalized so that those individuals who gained knowledge, skills, attitudes and values from relevant work experiences and high-level non-formal training will have the opportunity to have them recognized, accredited and given equivalencies parallel to those obtained through formal schooling
- Issue on access is not only access to opportunities but also access to quality, i.e. quality against quantity

France

- Few students in the private universities and higher education institutions,
- There is more involvement of the private sector in designing new courses,
- There is strong tradition of association of the economy in the improvement of the studies in engineering schools,
- Many of the local universities are sponsored by local authorities

Japan

- There are different characteristics of society: 1) lifelong society (aging society); 2) massification of society (47% of 18 years old go to universities and junior colleges)
- Not concerned so much on how to provide access but on what type of education will the students get
- Higher education must prepare mature students

UNESCO

- There are different views of access and equity
- The challenges are how to open, widen or increase access to higher education
- Massification is still a big problem in Asia and the Pacific region
- There is a big debate on privatization of higher education, on open learning
- On the issue of equity problem: 1) with increasing tuition fees, many families can not afford; 2) scholarships provided are usually not enough
- On the issue of women participation in higher education, there is imbalance on the proportion of male and female, majority of women go into the social science fields and not many in engineering and technology

**Privatization**

Malaysia

- Privatization is done to create effectiveness and efficiency of IHL..due to shortage

of resources and lack of qualified and trained manpower

- The government has offered students funding to the public & private institutions through the National Fun Corportization.
- Private education is the education provided by private education institutions. The management and operation of private education institutions are governed by the Education Act 1996.

India

- The government does not have enough money to support higher education and so there is a need to go into privatization to universities for efficiency
- The quality of education in many private higher education institutions is worst than the public institutions
- There are private colleges which are privately managed but heavily publicly financed
- Practice in the private institutions are bad such as on recruitment, in charging tuition fees, etc.

Thailand

- Private higher education institutions are increasing rapidly
- There are 41 private higher education institutions under supervision of university of Ministry of University Affairs
- There is strong competition between public and private universities
- Private higher education institutions get some funding from government such as research grant, or loan from government

Cambodia

- The policy is to encourage private sector to invest in education
- Institutions are allowed to operate on their own, generate income and use it
- The trend is to increase the number of students who pay and reduce the number of those who does not pay

Vietnam

- Privatization was started in 1995 but quickly the number of private institutions has increased
- Establishment of private institutions was stopped to ensure quality of education

Philippines

- Higher education in the Philippines is almost privatized already considering that of the total 1,282 higher education institutions, almost 80% are private institutions
- Of the more than 2 million students, about 76% are enrolled in the private higher education institutions

France

- There are very small enrolment in the private universities

- The issue is not much on privatization
- There is more a partnership and participation movement with existing or new institutions and streams, rather than a movement towards privatization,
- Fees in private higher education institutions are much higher than in public universities.

Japan

- There are two meanings of privatization: 1) like in the Philippines, Japanese higher education is already privatized because out of the total 586 universities, 431 are private universities (almost 73 %); 2) there is now market force-oriented in higher education, decided by the consumers(the students)
- Many higher education institutions have to develop new courses which can attract more students
- The trend for influence of the market forces in higher education is growing

UNESCO

- This is now a big issue and debate in the Region and in the developing countries on massification of education, we have to face the challenge of information society, globalization, international competition, and money is very limited to massify
- Countries like Japan, Korea and Philippines succeeded in massification because of their big private sector, however, countries like China, Cambodia and Vietnam can not afford It with public funds

The debate on privatization in some countries are:

1) Should private higher education be seen as a way to help achieve goal of massification of higher education in developing countries;
2) Issue of complementarity and competition between public and private higher education institutions:
3) Control and management of the private institutions is a big challenge facing many governments in the region. It is an issue of strategy to be decided by government

# Appendix I: Country Reports

## Australia[1]: Leo H. T. West

### 1. Introduction

Over a little more than a decade Australia's higher education system has experienced major revolutionary reforms, and after a few years of relative stability it may be about to embark on yet another set of major reforms. In this paper, these trends are documented under a structure that describes and comments on the major changes themselves, articulates the principles that have driven the changes, and describes a set of principles identified as those likely to drive the next set of imminent changes.

The past decade or so of changes began with the release of the Australian Government's Green Paper, *The Challenge for Higher Education in Australia in 1987 and the follow-up White Paper Higher Education: A Policy Statement* in July 1988. These heralded structural changes, changes in the way higher education was funded, the introduction of forms of student fees and loans, increases in data reporting requirements, introduction of a quality assessment and assurance process, and a substantial growth in student numbers funded by the government.

### 2. Structural Reforms[2]

In the 1980s Australia's higher education system had two types of institutions, Universities and what were collectively termed Colleges of Advanced Education, although these colleges carried a range of other names (e.g. Institutes of Technology, Institutes of Advanced Education), as well. There were 19 universities and approximately 65 CAEs ( the actual number varied during the decade due to a set of mergers that took place within the CAE sector). All institutions were government funded, and there were no student fees. The Universities were all comprehensive research institutes with a full range of disciplines and awards from Bachelors to Doctoral degrees. The CAEs generally had more restricted discipline coverage, although there had been considerable broadening as a result of the mergers mentioned above, and all were predominately undergraduate[3]. None offered the Ph.D. degree. This sectoral discrimination hides substantial variation within the sectors and the emergence during the 1980s of some overlap in functions and activities, in particular the development of significant research activities in some CAE institutions.

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[1] Paper prepared for Regional Seminar on Higher Education Reform: Recent Trends and Strategies towards the 21st Century. Organised by National Institute for Educational Research of Japan, Tokyo, Japan. 15-26 June 1998.

[2] The nature of the Australian higher education system up to the post White Paper era (1987) is well summarised in *National Report on Australia's Higher Education Sector*, Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service, 1993. In particular, Chapter Two provides a concise description of the build-up to the 1987 changes.

[3] In 1985, the Universities had 21.7% of their students enrolled in Masters or Doctorate degrees; the CAE's had 1.1% (Source: Review of Efficiency and Effectiveness, Canberra: CTEC, 1986).

The two sectors were administered and funded differently, in ways that were ultimately unsustainable. The Federal Government's advisory body, the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission (CTEC) had separate Councils that produced different sets of recommendations for the different sectors. It is not necessary here to describe these different processes of the Universities Council and the Advanced Education Council (see footnote 2 for details). It is sufficient to note that the levels of recurrent funding between the systems per full-time equivalent student were different, the methods of determining other funding levels, such as capital, were different, and the methods of consultation between the relevant Council and individual institutions were different. It should be further noted that there were also significant variations between funding levels (at least recurrent funding) within the sectors, although for the outside observer it is not easy to identify the reasons for these variations.

The White Paper announced the replacement of the binary system with a Unified National System (UNS). This was achieved by voluntary mergers, mostly between a university and one or more CAEs. The incentives for such mergers were a mix of carrot and stick, with minimum size a major criteria for entry, and additional funding available to assist mergers. Being a member of the UNS was voluntary, but the cost of staying out was high[4] and in the end there were no important opt-outs. A vital part of membership was the educational profile. This was an agreement between the university and the government, renewed annually, defining the university's mission, goals and targets, used as a basis for determining the level of resources to be provided by the government. Also part of the agreement was to provide the government with a full range of data (discussed below). The CTEC, the arms-length (from government) advisory body, which previously recommended funding and capital allocations to institutions was disbanded. Negotiations are now direct between the government and the university. A new body, the Higher Education Council reports to the parliament through its parent body (the National Board of Employment Education and Training) on the profiles process and other government-university relationships, and provided advice to the minister in response to references referred to it by the minister. The profile and the associated process was seen to be a mechanism to balance the autonomy of institutions and the need for public accountability and the implementation of government policy.

As a result of the mergers, by 1991 there were thirty eight universities as members of the UNS. Most are comprehensive in the fields of study they cover, are research universities, and offer the range of degrees from Bachelor to Doctorate. By 1998, the system has expanded to 42: two private universities have been formed and two small institutions that are outside the UNS but obtain funds from the government on a contract basis for teaching.

***Comment***

The result has been a diverse Australian higher education system with respect to major mission(s), with a range of performances across and within those missions. This mix of diversity and performance can be seen in the three rounds of evaluations of the Committee for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. These rounds concerned,

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[4] Institutions which elected to stay outside the UNS would have received government funding on a contract basis for teaching purposes only.

respectively, All University Objectives in 1994, Teaching and Learning in 1995, and Research and Community Services in 1996. The reports produced categories of universities, which although they do not represent 'leagues tables' demonstrate collectively that there is a diversity of relative performance across broad university objectives. Put simply, the same universities are not outstanding at everything or vice versa.

There are many critics who argue that the UNS era has led to greater intrusiveness by the government in university autonomy. There is little doubt that the government, through the department (first DEET, now DEETYA) has much more information about the performance of universities, has forced institutional management reforms, such as the production of strategic plans, research plans, capital plans etc. that universities may not have chosen to do themselves, and has influenced universities in their targeting of student numbers and graduates in fields of study, levels of study and sources of students (e.g. favouring school leavers during one period). But that influence has stopped short of direct interference in a university's operations (unlike CTEC which at times was directly intrusive). Any ten commentators would have ten views about whether the balance is right or not. What matters more is that Australia now has a system which allows potentially for great university autonomy and substantial government intrusiveness. Where the balance is reached at any point in time, or in any university, will depend on the context at that time and the strength and foresight of the individuals involved. That is probably a healthy situation.

## 3. Funding System Reforms

Members of the UNS receive government funds as a block grant on a rolling triennial basis, that is the funding is announced for the ensuing three years, with the third or out-year of each triennium announced each year. The block grant consists of recurrent and on-going capital funding. Special capital funding is also provided. Other funding, such as research project support provided by the Australian Research Council and the National Medical Research Council is provided directly as a result of application and review. There is also a range of special purpose funds.

An urgent need in the establishment of the UNS was an equitable and transparent funding process. The Green Paper quoted preliminary data to show that there were relative funding variations as high as 35 per cent between institutions. In 1990, the government used a process, to become known as the Relative Funding Model to implement its goal of a equitable and transparent resource allocation. It is not a fully on-going funding system. It was applied in its 'full' form once, as a means of equalising funding, although the actual 'equalisation' took a number of years to achieve. Beyond that one-off application, the research performance component of the model has been reapplied annually, and the weights used in the student teaching side have been used as the basis for the funding of growth in student numbers beyond 1991.

The Relative Funding Model (RFM) had two components; a teaching component and a research component (where the research component was considered as that element of recurrent funds deemed to be used to support research over and above the teaching cost element related to higher degree teaching, especially Masters by research and Ph.D). The Research Quantum, as the later became known, was estimated to be six per cent of

the total recurrent grant. In the RFM, 6 per cent of recurrent funds were distributed on research performance, the details of which are described below. The teaching component (94 per cent) was 'distributed' on the basis of full-time equivalent students weighted according to Field of Study(FOS) and Level of Study(LOS). The lowest cost element in the FOS by LOS matrix, undergraduate Business/Economics, was allocated a weight of 1.0. Other elements were assigned weights greater than 1.0 based on a set of analyses of historical costs, probably 'judgementally balanced' (in the opinion of an outsider). In any event the final weights were certainly public. The equivalent full-time student unit became known as the 'Student Load' or simply as 'load'. And the weighted unit as 'weighted load'.

The RFM was then applied to the Weighted Planned Load for 1990 for each institution to produce the teaching component which was combined with the research quantum to produce a RFM allocation. When compared to the actual 1990 grant, the differences ranged from an 'overfunding' of 21 per cent to an 'underfunding' of 22 per cent. Because of an admitted degree of inaccuracy in the model, a 'tolerance band' of plus/minus three percent was established. Of the 36 institutions then part of the UNS, 10 were above plus three per cent and 12 were below minus three per cent. Institutions outside the tolerance band had their grants adjusted over the 1991-1993 triennium to bring them into the band. (In some cases this process took longer). The adjustments involved a mix of load and grant adjustments.

The research quantum, which is used each year was initially allocated on the basis of research grants received from government competitive grants. In 1994, the formula was changed to include other public sector and industry funding sources, and to include as output measures, scholarly publications and the number of higher degree by research completions combined in a weighted composite index. Publication categories are defined and Vice Chancellors are required to sign-off on the authenticity of the data submitted. It should be stressed that the grant when given to the university was a block grant, universities are free to spend the money as they see fit.

***Comment***

One should ask: 'Has Australia achieved an equitable performance based resource allocation system for higher education'. The system is transparent and the weights appear to have both face validity and general acceptance.

The major component of the research quantum, grants received, is an input measure, although it can be argued that grants are a measure of past research performance, since this plays such an important role in the selection process. The output measures, publications and higher degree by research completions are indeed performance although not directly quality based, although for both measures there is a quality threshold. There has been an intention to include more direct quality output measures and to increase the weight given to the output measures to fifty per cent. Neither of these has been achieved as yet.

Is the major component, that is teaching, performance based? Or is it merely demand driven? Funding is on 'Planned Load', that is the agreed enrolments between university and government. The profile specifies planned load by FOS and LOS, and reports planned Totals, Commencers and Completions. In the sense that this involves the

meeting of agreed targets, it could be seen as a performance. This is more particularly the case since universities are penalised for under-enrolling relative to their targets (they lose the funding), but are not funded for any over-enrolment. Student progress, a direct if somewhat crude performance measure, is included in a subtle way. There is an arbitrary formula between commencing student load and total student load, which assumes a year-to-year throughput rate of 75 per cent. There is at this stage no inclusion of completions or completion rates in the funding method.

## 4. National Data Collection

As part of membership of the UNS, universities are required to provide a set of government specified data returns each year[5]. The receipt of the government grant is made conditional on the supply of the returns. The data returns are in the following areas: students, staff, finances, research, educational profiles, and a special file for the Australian Tax Office (needed for the HECS charge discussed below). Universities are provided with the file specification and, where appropriate, master spreadsheets into which the data can be entered.

The student and staff files are unit files, that is there is a separate record for each student and for each full-time and fractional full-time staff member. These records are very large, in the student file, for example, showing a range of descriptive data on the student and a set of enrolment and performance data. The data element definitions and the code definitions for each data element are specified. Because of the unit structure a range of derived data can be calculated for both students and staff.

In the financial area, universities are required to provide copies of the university's audited Annual Financial Report and required to complete a set of spreadsheets of specified financial data.

Regarding research, universities provide a Research Plan and details of grants received from various sources and publications over the last year

The educational profiles include the university's mission and objectives, information on the scope of its teaching and research activities, incorporating student load targets (total, commencing and completions), and plans to achieve national priorities, for example, equity objectives.

***Comment***

The reporting requirements that accompanied the reforms have received much criticism for their intrusiveness and the workload they create. The data provided has given the government unprecedented accountability opportunities. This capacity has been used to great effect during the profiles meetings and negotiations, where the government department team was often as well informed about the university as the university management. While that represents a level of intrusiveness, its containment within the

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[5] Details of the actual requirements, including file descriptions, definitions of variables and codes, spreadsheets, etc. can be seen on the DEETYA home page, at the address:
http://www.deetya.gov.au/divisions/hed/highered/statpubs.htm

confidential profiles discussions is probably justified on accountability grounds. The data has not been widely published in the form of performance tables or leagues tables- a fear that existed in the early years of the reforms. Two major reviews of performance, the National Report published in 1993 (see footnote 2), and the recent Characteristics and Performance report have provided valuable national comparisons between universities in sensitive formats[6].

The huge demand in workload has been real, but there are two qualifications to be made. The workload has not fallen on academics. The information systems and data collection procedures established in universities to meet the requirements have required specialist staff in the university administration and in Faculty offices.

The systems established have provided to universities a rich source of university information for use in their own management. Universities in Australia now have excellent management information data bases at their disposal.

## 5. Fees, Loans and Student Support

Prior to 1974 in Australia, university students paid some fees, estimated to be about ten per cent of the actual cost, and because of scholarships not all students paid that fee. In 1974 the government abolished fees as part of a strategy to increase access to higher education. This situation existed for foreign students as well as Australian nationals until the introduction in 1980 of an overseas student charge for private foreign students, initially at a very low level, but rising to approximately 20 per cent of the average costs. In 1988, policy changed for both foreign and Australian students. Foreign students were required to pay the full cost of their education, thus ending a long period of Australian taxpayer subsidisation of foreign students and beginning a new industry in the export of higher education. At the same time the government continued to provide fee free education under aid development programs, funded through the Department of Foreign Affairs.

For Australian students the same rationale was applied, that those who benefit from higher education should contribute to the extent of that benefit, although the implementation was very different. A Committee on Higher Education Funding was established to examine ways of funding growth in higher education. The Committee recommended the establishment of a Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) in which students should contribute approximately 20 per cent towards their education. The proportion was an estimate of the distribution of benefit that accrued to the individual as the result of higher education. The contribution of other beneficiaries, the nation and the employers, was considered to be provided in the other 80 per cent derived from taxation. In the end a flat rate was applied rather than one directly related to the cost of particular courses, and the rate worked out to about 22 per cent of the average actual cost. But the scheme was not a simple fee, nor a simple loan. Students accrued a HECS debt to be repaid out of taxes paid on earnings in the future, but the repayment was income contingent. Students were required to repay their liability

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[6] Andrews, L., Aungles, P., Baker, S. and Sarris, A. Characteristics and Performance of Higher Education Institutions (A Preliminary Investigation). Report to DEETYA. 1998

through the tax system only after their income exceeded average weekly incomes, and only while it did so. Liabilities are interest free, but are adjusted annually for inflation. There is a provision for up-front payment at discounted rates (initially 15 per cent, later raised to 25 per cent). There are also a number of exemptions, especially for post-graduate research students. A number of studies, including one conducted by the Higher Education Council have shown that HECS has not been a significant deterrent to entry to higher education, even for identified access and equity groups.

Recently the 'fee' and the repayment rates have been increased. Three levels of HECS now exist for different types of fields. The levels are approximately 25 per cent of the full cost, although there is variation across discipline fields. The repayment also commences at a lower level of salary, with the repayment rate increasing with salary. It is not yet known if the new policy will be as benign towards the decision to participate in higher education as the old policy proved to be.

The funds raised under HECS were used as intended to fund growth in higher education. Thus Australian higher education experienced substantial growth in government funded higher education, which was both a break from the past and from the pattern occurring in other Western countries in the same period.

A system of means tested student income support, known as Austudy has continued through the period.

Despite the growth in funded places it failed to meet demand, which was being driven by dramatic increases in secondary completion rates, which far outweighed any demographic declines in the school leaver age group, and by increasing demands for continuing education and professional upgrading. Throughout the decade, the government maintained its policy of no direct fees for undergraduate students, but relaxed the policy for postgraduate students, with certain exceptions. Consequently throughout the 1990s there has been a gradual shift in many postgraduate areas to full cost fees collected directly by the university, and a corresponding decline in government funding for those courses. Following a change of government in 1996, from 1997 universities have been able to charge fees for undergraduate students beyond the numbers funded by the government (that is, outside of load). The take up has been slow.

***Comment***

Although there is still opposition, especially from student groups, the introduction of HECS into an environment of no fees and no long-term family provision for fees was an inspired policy. A shift of a substantial proportion of higher education funding away from the government has been achieved without placing an undue and unfair burden on one generation of university students, and without any impact on participation rates in higher education, even by traditionally under-represented groups.

## 6. Growth in Student Numbers

The growth in student numbers is shown in Table 1 for commencing students (that is, students new to higher education), and in Table 2 for total students. During the period 1983 to 1997, commencing students grew by 108 per cent, an average annual growth

rate of 7.7 per cent; total student numbers grew by 88 per cent an annual average growth rate of 6.4 per cent. Student load (equivalent full-time) is only available since 1988 for the UNS. It grew by an average annual rate of 6.3 per cent. Such overall figures hide as much as they show. During the 1983 to 1997 period, the female participation rate went from 46.3 to 54.4 per cent. Commencing higher degree by research students grew from 2,954 in 1983 to 10,554 in 1997, while course work higher degree commencers grew form 3,987 to 25, 286, a staggering annual growth rate of 38 per cent.

***Comment***

While these figures show a substantial demand for higher education, they also show a willingness by the government to fund growth mainly as a direct consequence of the funds provided through HECS (Tables 1 and 2 show the acceleration of growth occurring post 1988), a willingness by foreign students to pay the full cost of higher education in increasing numbers, and the willingness of adults or and/or their employers to fund their continuing education.

## 7. Quality Assurance

Australian universities are autonomous bodies which are responsible to their Council or Senate. There are no mechanisms for the accreditation of institutions, although there are accrediting bodies in a number of the professions which grant accreditation to courses leading to entry into those professionals. There are, however, national reviews that report on the quality of institutions across the range of their objectives. During the period under discussion, the nature of these reviews have changed. Until 1991, the national reviews were disclipinary based. National reviews of a specific discipline was undertaken across the universities. Reviews were conducted in Engineering (completed 1988), Law (1987), Maths and Science Teacher Education (1989), Accounting (1990), Agriculture (1991), Computing and Information Sciences (1992), and Modern Languages (1991). There were also reviews of Medicine (1989) and Asian Studies (1988) which were similar discipline assessments although not formally part of the Discipline Review program. These reviews reported publicly both on the state of the discipline in Australia overall, and specifically on each institution. In 1992 there was a change to a quality assurance system for whole institutions rather than a specific discipline. The Committee for Quality Assurance in Higher Education was established in 1992. It conducted three quality review of universities; the first, in 1994 concerned the overall objectives of universities, the second (1995) concerned the learning and teaching objectives, the third (1996) concerned the research and community services objectives. The Quality Assurance reports were both more comprehensive and more general than the Discipline Review reports. They produced categories of universities that were widely interpreted as 'leagues tables', although the Committee stated that they were not interpretable in that way. Since the change in government in 1996, the future of national reviews remains uncertain. The committee also recommended on the distribution of additional funds (equal to two per cent of recurrent funds, approximately A$70 million) at different rates based on the categories (of quality performance) into which they had placed universities.

***Comment***

The Discipline Reviews and the Quality Assurance Reviews of Australian universities have been instrumental in creating significant attitudinal change to accountability in Australian higher education. Their public national reporting about universities using qualitative and quantitative comparisons which identify strengths and weaknesses, and ratings and rankings have produced a cultural change in ways of viewing quality differences within Australian higher education. They have also been catalytic in the introduction of broader information systems and quality assurance systems within universities. These comments perhaps should be balanced with the admission that there are some critics who view the changes as more token than real.

## 8. Other Reforms

There have been a range of other reforms that cannot be described here because of space restrictions. These include:

- Research initiatives such as the Co-operative Research Centres (joint university and industry), and research targeting through the Centres of Excellence and the Key Centres of Teaching and Research programs;
- Internationalisation, with a particular emphasis on the Asia Pacific region;
- Establishment of the Open Learning Agency of Australia; and
- Substantial changes in employment conditions for university staff, especially a decline in tenure for academics.

## 9. Drivers of Reforms in Australian Higher Education in the Past Decade

Several pressures can be identified as having driven the Australian higher education reforms of the last decade. These drivers are also present in reforms in other countries as well. They include:

- More transparent and equitable distribution of government funds to universities, performance based, where possible;
- Greater efficiency and effectiveness in higher education;
- Greater accountability and accountability measures in the performance of universities across the range of their objectives;
- Reduced government and greater individual contribution to the cost of higher education;
- Independent (of universities) Quality Assessment and Assurance of universities;
- Changing balance in university autonomy and government intrusiveness.

## 10. The Emerging Reforms in Australian Higher Education

During 1997 the Australian government initiated a new review of higher education by a

committee that has become known as the West Committee. The final report of the West Committee has now been released, although the government has not yet signalled its response to the report. The report anticipates a new and urgent reform agenda for higher education, and identifies the developments over the next two decades that will drive that reform. They identify the new drivers described below.

- Community expectations will increase in the sense that students, parents and employers will expect better outcomes from higher education. In particular, the community will expect universities to produce 'products' that are tailored to their (the communities') particular needs.
- Demand will increase.
- The digital revolution will fundamentally change the way teaching, research and university management are conducted.
- Competition from outside the Australian higher education system will emerge, for example from publishing, media and telecommunications providers as well as from international universities.

It seems that Australian higher education, and those of other countries too, will have only a very short respite between the revolutionary reforms of the 1990s and those of the 2000s.

**Table 1. Commencing Students, 1983 to 1997**

| Year | Higher degree Research | Higher degree Coursework | Bachelor | Other | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1983 | 2,954 | 3,987 | 74,713 | 46,329 | 127,983 |
| 1984 | 3,085 | 3,985 | 77,605 | 46,749 | 131,424 |
| 1985 | 3,159 | 4,497 | 81,572 | 49,923 | 139,151 |
| 1986 | 3,254 | 4,856 | 88,317 | 52,240 | 148,667 |
| 1987 | 4,019 | 5,289 | 93,022 | 51,470 | 153,800 |
| 1988 | 4,165 | 6,475 | 103,047 | 55,229 | 168,916 |
| 1989 | 4,668 | 7,553 | 114,787 | 54,094 | 181,102 |
| 1990 | 5,441 | 10,083 | 128,764 | 57,152 | 201,440 |
| 1991 | 6,965 | 12,786 | 139,203 | 58,986 | 217,940 |
| 1992 | 9,331 | 14,423 | 140,009 | 46,836 | 210,599 |
| 1993 | 10,235 | 16,253 | 144,124 | 46,844 | 217,456 |
| 1994 | 10,349 | 17,863 | 152,197 | 44,816 | 225,225 |
| 1995 | 10,164 | 20,555 | 165,694 | 48,389 | 244,802 |
| 1996 | 9,945 | 22,582 | 176,455 | 52,214 | 261,196 |
| 1997 | 10,554 | 25,268 | 180,645 | 49,832 | 266,299 |

*Source : DEETYA Selected Higher Education Student Statistics, 1997*

**Table 2. Total Students, 1983 to 1997**

| Year | Higher degree Research | Higher degree Coursework | Bachelor | Other | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1983 | 13,015 | 12,092 | 227,847 | 95,623 | 348,577 |
| 1984 | 13,266 | 12,522 | 234,368 | 97,217 | 357,373 |
| 1985 | 13,552 | 13,056 | 242,355 | 101,053 | 370,016 |
| 1986 | 13,896 | 13,998 | 256,118 | 105,956 | 389,968 |
| 1987 | 14,567 | 13,401 | 264,177 | 101,589 | 393,734 |
| 1988 | 15,289 | 14,936 | 283,463 | 107,162 | 420,850 |
| 1989 | 14,751 | 15,981 | 305,706 | 104,638 | 441,076 |
| 1990 | 16,535 | 19,782 | 340,598 | 108,160 | 485,075 |
| 1991 | 19,280 | 24,985 | 380,590 | 109,683 | 534,538 |
| 1992 | 24,286 | 29,275 | 413,321 | 92,483 | 559,365 |
| 1993 | 28,345 | 33,584 | 430,204 | 83,484 | 575,617 |
| 1994 | 31,009 | 37,203 | 442,910 | 74,274 | 585,396 |
| 1995 | 32,646 | 41,373 | 454,846 | 75,312 | 604,177 |
| 1996 | 33,560 | 45,374 | 474,754 | 80,406 | 634,094 |
| 1997 | 35,144 | 49,733 | 496,364 | 77,586 | 658,827 |

*Source : DEETYA Selected Higher Education Student Statistics, 1997*

# Cambodia: Pich Sophoan

## 1. Introduction

Cambodian Higher Education is intensely dependent on the public budget. Most Cambodian Higher Education institutions are currently seriously under-funded because of two main reasons: (1) Cambodia is still economically weak and unsustainable, and (2) the government expenditure on defense is very high. To be more exact, obvious low quality of Cambodian Higher Education is determined by a number of factors: technical, social, financial, mental and human.

## 2. National Development Plan

The second Kingdom of Cambodia was formally formed after the 1993 UN-run elections and is now a multi-party society under going a transitional period from a demand economy to a free-market one. Cambodia is currently facing with many dilemmas and difficulties as a result of the legacy of the genocidal regime and two decades of warfare.

The Royal Government of Cambodia, in the short-term, will consolidate the achievements of the recent past and build up them in order to create a base from which a long-term development program will spring. Among many possibilities, the government wishes to concentrate its efforts on addressing the features of the country's weaknesses that present the most fundamental development barriers. Accordingly, the country's short-term development plan will focus on creating a base to market economy through macro-economic standardization and reform, legislative and market initiatives, and on increasing absorptive capacity through reform of administrative practice and organization, strengthening operational ministries and human development resources.

The most targeted areas of the government's masterplan for the long-term national development program are rural development, economic reform, education and health, and the reform of the public services. The government's long-term plan for Higher Education (HE) is to improve its efficiency through reform, restructure and rehabilitation.

## 3. Higher Education System

Compared with the systems in many countries including those of ASEAN countries, Cambodian Higher Education is still at its early stage of development, both in terms of academic and financing. Two decades of wars have had direct negative consequences on Higher Education.

In Cambodia, the term "higher education" refers to formal education and training activities after the completion of year 12 schooling that leads to the award of a degree of a minimum length of four years full-time study. Most Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) providing degree programs are public. Private HE schools are allowed to operate according to the legislation with the approval from the Ministry of Education, Youth

and Sport. Apart from a newly-emerging private HEIs providing degree programs, there are a few private schools providing tertiary level courses which are non-degree programs. There are, for the time being, 10 HEIs, 9 public and 1 private

HE in Cambodia offers programs of a minimum of 4 years and maximum of 7 years of undergraduate studies. Several aims have been the characteristics of Cambodian HE:

- To contribute to the national development,
- To develop human resources to serve the country,
- To improve the quality of education, and
- To improve and increase efficiency of operation

During the 1980s, and early 1990s, the legacy of the Khmer Rouge regime made it necessary that Cambodian HE was to cater for Cambodia's emergency needs for skilled human resources at whatever quality level. However, as the free-market policy has been introduced into the country, the HE system needs to be more responsive to the market needs, thus emphasizing on quality and program responsiveness.

## 4. Issues

Although Cambodia followed the founded model of a central planning system for only one decade, the problems created are the same as those faced in other former socialist countries. The current issues can be considered as follows.

### 4.1. Structure

The present organization of HE is characterized by fragmentation in programming and lack of policy coordination. There are 9 public HEIs under the jurisdiction of 4 ministries. Because of this, HEIs are narrowly specialized in separate institutions. The institutions have little horizontal Linkage and respond only to the instructions of the ministry to which they belong. Experiences of other socialist countries under transformation to market economies have demonstrated weaknesses in this model. There is little cooperation between institutions, and academically it impedes the inter-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary forces. There are no mechanisms for articulation and credit accumulation between institutions. It lacks flexibility and mobility, and, moreover, it causes wastage in use of plant and human resources.

This model lacks coordination and external efficiency to limit the institution's waste of resources. Restructuring of the HE system is required in order to readjust and develop institutions, disciplines, courses and curriculum for a higher education system which is not only relevant to Cambodian society, but will also take into account global trends in higher education.

### 4.2. Operational Mechanisms

The problems facing Cambodian higher education in terms of operational mechanism are more or less the same as those in other socialist or former socialist countries. They

are characterized by the following problems:

I. Enrolment of students;

II. Tuition fees and issues of equality;

III. Government control and institutional autonomy;

IV. Financing and budget allocation;

V. Appointment of rectors and vice rectors;

VI. Graduation job assignment, role of market forces in adjustment of demand for and supply of graduates;

VII. Motivation and Desirability of institutions to response to a changing society and surrounding community.

The increased enrollments in upper secondary education result in increased demands for access to higher education. The gap between the increasing pressure for access and the limited capacity of higher education institutions will become wider and make examinations and admissions more difficult. There is little standardization of student progress reporting, setting of assessments and end-of-year exams or finals. Compared with Technical and Vocational Education (TVE), the enrollments in higher education are much more (3 times more) than those in TVE. There is an urgent need to formulate policy and a strategic plan for development of TVE to redress this situation.

Lines of authority and levels of delegated management are not clear due to historical legacies. Although the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport has been trying to rationalize and coordinate higher education institutions planning and management; only limited progress has been made.

Past traditions of guaranteed post-graduation jobs means that little information is available on the destination and performance of graduates in the work place. Because of this, institutions lack motivation to make adjustment to response to the changing needs of the labour market. There is low external efficiency and waste of resources. Market forces are not considered in calculating the demand for graduates. This model of operational mechanism lacks a dynamic capacity.

The concentration on full-time day time, institution-based programmes in the capital Phnom Penh is a serious access barrier. This delivery organization prevents members of the workforce, even in the capital, from having access to higher education opportunities. One reform measure would be the development of part-time day release and evening programme which are popular in other South-east Asian countries. A second strategy could be better development of a university extension service where students follow self-study diploma/degree programmes, limited to occasional supervision. Both strategies could be linked to "modular" programme and credit accumulation mechanism.

The proportion of women in higher education is approximately 15% while the proportion in the total population is approximately 57%. Another constraint on female enrolment, especially outside Phnom Penh, is the absence of dormitory facilities on university sites.

This model of operational mechanism lacks motivation and dynamism. Reform is

required to develop a new system of higher education which will play a leading role in establishing a market economy to meet the needs of a changing society. Reform and restructuring of higher education system are required as preconditions for any future development. They should go hand-in-hand with implementation.

### 4.3. Staff/Plant and Facilities

The majority of qualified teaching staff fled the country or died during the war. The present teaching staff of major institutions consists of few foreign professors and Cambodian teachers. Most of the latter are young. A considerable number of these teachers has little capacity of teaching creativity. The required effort to upgrade university staff (both administrative and teaching) is a formidable one. An associated problem is the low professional morale of the teaching and administrative staff in institutions. Poor professional morale is primarily due to the extremely low salary levels which are insufficient for supporting a family. Low salary forces every staff member to find part-time work in the private sector which provides more sufficient salary.

Most higher education institutions lack necessary facilities, minimum laboratory equipment, library books, journals and newspapers. The budget for HE institutions is just enough for the very low salaries of staff and student subsidies.

The present structure of disciplines, courses, and curricula has minimal relevance. Most HE institutions in Cambodia have been adopting foreign curricula models, content and textbooks with little or no change to adapt them to a Cambodian context. Although Khmerisation has been adopted as government policy, there is little Khmerised curricula or textbooks. Therefore, there is a big gap between demand and capacity of HE institutions in terms of teaching staff quality, curriculum and facilities. At present, it is difficult, if not impossible, for HE institutions to play their expected role in providing qualified manpower for economic and social development.

Solutions must be found and implemented as urgent rehabilitation actions. Rehabilitation aims to bring back higher education on a normal track by consolidating the teaching staff, improving teacher status and quality, and providing minimum standard facilities, in order to lay down a solid foundation for future development in the direction set as a goal for reform and restructuring.

## 5. Strategy for Development

The Royal Government's broad strategy will be to reposition higher education to become more responsive to enhancing workforce skill requirement and, in particular, to reposition and rationalize HE institutions towards a more market-driven approach through reform of institutional structure, financing and associated legislation.

The main development programmes are:

- reforming legislation and structure;
- improving resource allocation;
- rationalizing access and output;

- enabling academic programme development;
- rationalizing higher education language policies and programme; and
- strengthening institutional management.

## 6. Conclusion

Though Cambodia is moving noticeably fast from a centrally-planned economy to a free-market one, its higher education is still under-funded. Therefore, Cambodia requires both technical and financial assistance from the neighboring countries, Asia and Pacific and international community so as to reform, restructure and rehabilitate its higher education. Without internal and external aid, Cambodian Higher Education can not become self-reliant. Moreover, much work needs to be done for higher education in Cambodia to survive in the modern technology world.

## People's Republic of China: Pan Maoyuan

Since the 1980s, the development of higher education in China has been facing challenges from two sides --- the rapid development of the world-wide science and technology (revolution of new science and technology) and transformation from the planned economic system to the socialist market economic system. On the eve of 21st century, challenges for higher education in China still mainly come from these two sides, but their contents and focusing issues will keep posing new demands and problems, in pace with changes of the world situation and development of society in China. For example, the coming of information society will give rise to the tremendous changes in the teaching process of higher education institutions; the dominance of knowledge-intensive economy will put universities into the center of society from periphery; the increasingly-serious contradiction between highly-developed science and technology and low qualities leads universities to strengthening the education of qualities; the massification of higher education on the agenda makes it imperative to find solutions to increasing funds and opening up more channels of employment for graduates; the idea of sustainable human development into strategy of higher education impels people to reconsider issues as to the response of higher education to the market economy more calmly.

### Part One. Challenges of the Market Economy for Higher Education in China

**1. Issues of scale and speed of development in higher education**

In 1997, the total number of enrollment in higher education institutions amounts to 6,080,000 students. In absolute terms, China is a large county of higher education, only lower than that in the United States and India, but the ratio is only 48.2 university students per 10,000 inhabitants. The gross enrollment ratio of the 18 to 21 age-group is only 7.6 per cent, lower than most of the developing countries. Is the ratio too low or more enough? Should the growth of higher education in enrollments be faster or controlled? These are controversial issues.

Considering needs and possibility, China implemented the policy of expanding higher education in a proper way. It is estimated that in the year 2000 the number of students will reach 6,500,000 and 50 students per inhabitants, and gross enrollment ratio of school-age population will be about 8 per cent. In 2010, the figure will reach 9,500,000, 70 students per 10,000 inhabitants and gross enrollment of school-age will be around 11 per cent.

In the 21st century, two problems must be solved if higher education in China comes into the stage of mass higher education and enrollment ratio of school-age population rises to over 15 per cent: to develop private (non-governmental) higher education so as to solve the problem of constrains of funding from the Central Government, and open up avenues for higher education to rural area to solve the problem of employment in urban area.

## 2. Issues concerning funding for higher education

Under the planned economy system, funding for higher education in China mainly depend on financial allocation from the Central Government. This kind of allocating pattern has greatly constrained the development in higher education. Since the 1980s, there has been rapid growth in national economy and higher education also has corresponding development. The number of enrollment in higher education institutions increased by 266 per cent during the past 17 years (from 1980 to 1997), but it was not accompanied by increases in the allocation of resources from the Central Government, thus the funds as well as treatment of staff in higher education institutions were inferior to those in other sectors. It is urgent problem to reform the investment pattern, increase more capital in the allocation by raising resources through various channels, and improve the treatment of university staff in the operation of higher education institutions.

Except for the financial allocation, the major channels of raising funds cover: donations from enterprises and persons keen on education at home and abroad, incomes from university-run factories, fees paid by students, incomes from various refresher-course classes in charge of fees, the transfer of achievements in scientific research, non-gratuitous social services, and incomes from the second occupations engaged by staffs and workers, etc.

Among the channels presented above, some are advantageous to the development of higher education, while others are harmful. At present, the various so-called " income-generating activities" in many higher education institutions have distracted staff 's time and vigor, resulted in the decrease of education quality, and the loss outweighs the gains. Such activities should be controlled to some extents if they have to be undertaken. The fees charged from students in public universities have reached 17.9 per cent in per student funds in 1997 and it is likely to grow in the coming years. The charges should be based on capacity of bear by most families to avoid students unable to participate in higher education institutions because of the financial reason.

## 3. Reform of higher education system

In recent years, in order to be responsive to the market economy system, higher education in China has focused on reform of the system. Some effects have been achieved, however, there still leaves lots of problems, the major ones are as follows:

- Reform of management system. To transfer some powers that belonged to the Central Government in the past to local regions, thus promoting higher education to be more relevant to local needs and serve for the local communities; to transfer some powers of running universities by the Central Government to universities themselves, thus ensuring universities to be more autonomous in operation for the society as a whole.
- To reform the so-called "unified admissions and unified assignment of jobs for graduates" system in higher education institutions. Regarding admissions, under the control of total enrollment of students by the Central Government, higher education institutions and their respective administrative sectors are allowed to make their own adjustments in accordance with market; As for employment of graduates, most of

them are encouraged to find jobs according to their own wills through employment market.

- The adjustment of the curriculum structure in higher education institutions. To make a adjustment of the curriculum structure and development of curricula based on information of employment market: to provide more those that are popular in the market, develop less that are not welcomed, and add more those programs that were not provided in the past but needed in the market now. Consequently, the disadvantages that higher education is isolated from society have been corrected in some extent.
- Diversification of operating higher education institution, focusing on low or junior level of higher education institutions. Obvious changes have taken place in the regular full-time higher education institutions (4-5 years). Lots of junior colleges (2-3 years), vocational university, and various adult higher education institutions have been founded. Graduates from these institutions have made up for 3/4 of the total graduates; besides, there are various short-circle programs for non-degree education and self-taught examination system of higher education, which reflect the state policy of focusing on low level of higher education institutions.

In a word, some achievements have been made in reforms facing the market economy in terms of the system of higher education institutions in China, However, in theoretic researches, specialists have different opinions: some persons believe that higher education should be guided and 'merchandised' by the market since it faces the market, and thorough reforms should be undertaken from the training aims to particular actions. Others think that higher education must have its own characteristics and development rules, if education is controlled by the mechanism of the market economy and the educational rules are replaced by the rules of market economy, it will inevitably do harms to the long-term task of training human resources. Far more of scholars hold the opinion that it is an inexorable trend for the development of higher education to keep pace with the market economy. Without facing the market, higher education is not only unable to grow, but also unable to survive. As the market economy exerts both active and negative effects upon higher education, higher education should take advantage of its active effect and try to avoid or reduce its negative one. In the sane time, because higher education is a national enterprise of culture and education, the cultivation of personnel should not only serve for the market economy, but also stimulate the development of science, technology, culture, and promote the overall progress of the society.

## Part Two. Higher Education Should Take Challenges of the Worldwide Science-and-Technology Revolution Actively

Challenges from the science-and-technology revolution and the market economy for higher education present inconsistent and contradictory aspects, or we may say, the eternal aim of the two is the same, but the contradictions frequently emerge in their process.

Although the science-and-technology revolution and market economy are quite different in essence, their eternal aim is the same while challenges arise from these two aspects. On hand, science and technology are the motive force of the development of modern

productivity and give impetus to its progress in a direct way, on other hand, they make up for the important component of modern productivity, thus often being called "the first productivity". Both prosperity and development in modern economy depend on the progress of science and technology, to vitalize economy, science and technology should be vitalized at first. Only will the progress of science and technology be firmly promoted, can the initiative be achieved in the economic competition. Market economy, as a kind of economical system, belongs to the category of production relations and exerts the same restrictive influence on productivity. The market economy is the product originated from the development of productivity in a certain stage and the inexorable demand for the further development of productivity. The reason why China must transfer its planned economy into the market economy and build up the system of the market economy is to liberate the productivity and make a further development of it in the final analysis. As a result, the eternal aim of taking challenges of both market economy and revolution of science and technology is to develop the productivity. For higher education, their unity is reflected in enhancing quality of education and training professional men needed in the construction of modernization.

However, in the process of taking these two challenges, in fact, there come many contradictions. This is related to the fact that the market economy has both positive and passive influences upon higher education. Especially in the stage that the market economy is far from being mature and perfect, its negative influence is particularly remarkable, for instance, the contradiction between the short-term information and benefit of the market economy and long-term program and aim of development of science and technology; the emphasis of application and underestimate of academic learning of the market economy are unfavorable to the training of scientists with solid theoretic foundation; the contradiction between profit-seeking idea of the market economy and contributing spirit needed in undertaking jobs of science and technology; etc. Among these negative influences upon higher education, some are caused by imperfect development of the market economy, others may exist in a long time and exerts permanent effects. Therefore, while stressing the relevance of higher education to the market economy, we cannot neglect the task of facing the challenge of the worldwide revolution of science and technology. Such a view should be advocated as: if higher education institutions cannot train personnel of science and technology with higher qualities and contribute to the advancement of science and technology, it eventually cannot facilitate the rapid growth of the market economy; and it is impossible to take the challenge of revolution of science and technology if higher education cannot survive and develop in the condition of the market economy, either.

The influence of revolution of science and technology upon higher education is widespread and profound. It is mainly reflected in the teaching reform, including establishment of training aims and standards, the development of specialty and curricula, the renewal of content and teaching equipment, and the application of modern teaching techniques, etc. In recent years, in this respect, major actions that have been taken in China cover:

- the placement of reforms relating to curricula, textbooks and delivery on the agenda. From 1994, the big plan concerning teaching reform, which is called the Plan of Reform of Teaching Content and Curriculum in Higher Education for the 21st Century, has been formulated and started. This plan concerns 8 big fields of science, namely, arts, science, engineering, medicine, finance and economics, law, and

foreign languages, 221 major programs and 985 minor programs; covers the development of specialty, curriculum structure, content, delivery, and application of technologies of electronics and information. Staff of universities and experts who participate in the plan have amounted to over 10,000. They make researches while they practise.

- the encouragement of education of human qualities. This is a kind of model for training personnel that is put forward against the idea of scientism and the model of narrowly-specialized education. 52 higher education institutions have been selected as experimental institutions for education of human qualities. The major measures undertaken in these institutions include: (1) strengthening curricula concerning general education; (2) improving the circumstances of campus culture for cultivating students; (3) encouraging students to plunge into the society and combining the theoretic teaching with social practice so as to teach them to learn not only how to study, but also how to do as well as how to be.

In addition, such measures as to improve the knowledge structure of personnel training and guarantee the cultivation of academic personnel while emphasizing the training of applied and vocational personnel, have also been conducted. For example, from 1992, 180 bases for training personnel of arts, social and natural science have been set up in some key universities. In these bases, investment has been increased and priorities are also given to admissions so as to ensure the academic personnel with high level in China.

The market economy has indeed resulted in the competitive consciousness, however, the progress of society will undoubtedly ask for more co-operation among human beings. The revolution of science and technology will meet human material needs to a great extent, but it may not necessarily bring happiness to the mankind. At present, higher education in China is facing the challenges from the revolution of science and technology and the market economy. In the process of development and reform as well as under new conditions, lots of new problems will arise and need studying one by one. With that purpose, the Essentials of Reform and Development of Education in China promulgated by the Central government in 1993 has put forward the policy of strengthening the theoretic studies and experiments relating to reforms and development of education. It demands both educational researchers and practitioners to conduct consulting researches on educational policies actively, maintain close relations between educational research and educational practice, and exert contributing function of educational research upon the reform and development of education. Up to now, researches on higher education in China have been undertaken almost throughout the whole country. It is roughly estimated that in China there are more than 700 institutes or sections for higher education research, about 500 journals concerning higher education research, and around 3,000 full-time staff and more part-time staff who undertake researches on basic theory of higher education, management of higher education, history and current situation of higher education. From the perspectives of philosophy, economics, sociology, culturology, law, and psychology, etc., they conduct researches on issues relating to reform and development of higher education. Every year, more than hundreds of books and over 15,000 paper and reports are published. All of these researches are undertaken mainly focusing on the central task of the general aim in our era - to build up socialist higher education system with Chinese characteristics for the 21st century.

## France: Thierry Malan

In the sphere of higher education France shows a variety of institutions stemming from various historical traditions and cultural and institutional responses to various challenges throughout the centuries. The situation shows a great degree of dependency on the Central State for providing the majority of the funds and granting normative and formal equality.

### Legal basis

The law of 26 January 1984 defines higher education as a public service including all post-secondary education attached to the different ministerial departments. The tasks of higher education include:

- -providing initial and continuing education;
- -conducting scientific and technological research;
- -spreading culture and disseminating scientific and technical information;
- -promoting international cooperation.

Higher education is characterized by a great variety of institutions. The law defines the basic principles applying to higher education courses under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Research and Technology, and also establishes the principles governing the organization and operation of higher education institutions, including universities, colleges and institutes outside universities, teacher training colleges.

### General organization of higher education in France

French higher education is for the most part under the control of the Ministry of education, research and technology, which has the monopoly in conferring university degrees. Its well-known specificity is a division into three distinct systems (see annex):

1. The Universities are almost all public and accommodate a very large number of students (1.5 million). They offer various types of courses including not only basic education, but also practical education and research-oriented streams; they are, for most streams, based on a principle of open access for all baccalaureate-holders;

2. The "Écoles", of various levels, some of them called "Grandes Écoles", to which access is selective. They have a limited number of students and ensure a high level of education with a professional objective: training engineers, higher-level civil service and business executives, and teachers. Among them 238 engineers schools (92 in universities, 78 independent from universities, 68 private),

3. Post-secondary classes in upper secondary schools prepare:
   - in two years for a higher technician degree (BTS: 231,000 students in 1900 schools, of which 69,000 students in 776 private schools)
   - or in two or three years for the competitive entrance examinations to the "Écoles"

(80,000 students in 490 schools, of which 14,000 students in 154 private schools).

## Student numbers

There has been in the last 30 years a big increase in Student numbers, as a follow-up of the increase in secondary education and the principle of open and free access to higher education :

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1964: | 300,000 registered students | 1984 : 1,000,000 |
| 1990-91: | 1,699,000 | 1995-96 : 2,160,000 |

Numbers of students decreased for the first time in 1996-97 : 2,133,000 (of which 1,469,400 in 90 universities and 92 engineering schools, with 25,000 students, attached to universities)

About 40% of the age group 21 are involved in studies (35% in higher education). Although there is some public disappointment as regards the benefits of further steps concerning growth in student numbers and expenditure, the social demand remains high. University graduates find employment faster than other degree-holders.

Quantitative expansion and structûral reforms at the end of the 60s have led to the creation of new universities. In Paris for instance the division of the former University of Paris after 1968 in 13 smaller universities, many of them specialized in a few groups of disciplines, did not prevent some of them from becoming big centers with more than 30,000 students. In recent years four new universities have been built in the surroundings of Paris. Quantitative expansion has brought together the creation of a number of small university or higher education centres, at times heavily subsidised and supported by local authorities keen on getting for their voters some kind of higher education.

## Admission policies and procedures

Attempts to channel the growing student-numbers have been made rather by means of a diversification of higher Education institutions than by limiting access.

Overall regulations on admission policies and procedures are the responsibility of national authorities rather than the autonomous decision of the universities themselves.

Government policy has been to prevent inequalities and guarantee access to higher education, and simultaneously to try and restrict student numbers in part of the higher education system in some study fields by means of diverse *numerus clausus* regulations, mostly for health studies or engineering and to direct flows of new students towards new shorter types and fields of studies.

Attempts and projects to limit the number of students have also been balanced by the conflicting view that there are in the long run, taking into consideration the labor market requirements, not enough highly-qualified graduates and too many pupils and students leaving the educational system without proper qualification, so that job prospects for holders of higher rank degrees, although many not as good as before, are still better than

opportunities for lower rank degree-holders.

There is a kind of overall political agreement :

- on a quantitative objective, namely to lead almost 75% of a single age group to full secondary studies up to the level of the baccalaureate. Since the baccalaureate is still considered in France to be at the same time the final degree of secondary education and the first degree of higher education, this means that student numbers should accordingly be increased.
- on maintaining open access for all baccalaureate-holders, without other requirements, in at least part of the institutions and streams of public higher education and rejecting prospects of overall selection schemes in admission.

Simultaneously there is a call for quality in studies and the selection of an elite among a greater mass of students, what a French Education Minister called "republican elitism". This leads to being more demanding as far as admission to more diversified graduate studies is concerned.

Various schemes have also been created for allowing students without secondary school leaving certificates to enter higher education after a few years of vocational experience.

In many open access streams, scholastic failure remains high in the first year, leading to high drop-out in this sector of higher education. This calls for improvements of efficiency in studies, and various schemes for adapting prerequisites, coordinating with the secondary school system and better inform the students. Changes in the profiles of the undergraduate students have created new types of challenge for the academic staff : they have to spend more time on remedial courses for students with very heterogeneous levels of knowledge. They often complain that they are not as well equipped for this task as secondary school teachers and that they undertake this new task to the detriment of their main tasks namely research and teaching their subjects at the highest education level.

Schemes are developed in order to improve efficiency by:

- counselling and guidance services in the higher education institutions,
- tutorials at the beginning of - and during - the academic year/or semester,
- organization of periods of orientation at the beginning of the academic year/or semester, providing some flexibility and allowing changes of majors during the first year,
- organisation of semesters instead of the traditional academic year organisation.

Continuing education schemes develop in higher education. This is strongly encouraged by a special legislation compelling all corporations to spend 1.5% of the total amount of salaries paid for continuing education programmes for their employees. On this new education market higher education institutions compete with secondary schools and also with private continuing education firms.

To make their own training schemes attractive to adults, higher education institutions

are creating possibilities to get university degrees through credits systems and flexible organisation of courses.

## Diversification

A major trend to cope with new student-flows has been the creation of vocationally oriented short-courses such as the university institutes of technology (IUT) in the 60s, preparing for two-year technological courses (in 23 fields) and awarding the university diploma of technology (DUT).

These new institutions were to be considered wholly new and modern branches of traditional universities and not merely separate post-secondary institutions like already existing post-baccalaureate two-year courses of higher technicians (STS) in upper secondary schools. There was opposition between pressure-groups within and outside the universities with conflicting arguments:

- to maintain quality, originality, selectivity and the elitist and liberal aspects of the University,
- to give all post-secondary studies a dignity and appeal equal to traditional university studies, as an important element to give students the impression that they are not pushed into second best studies.

The IUT (94 in 1996-97, with 108,000 students) are part of a university but they have special status, funding and regulations, which in fact isolate them to a certain extent from the universities they belong to. For example, their directors are appointed by the Minister of education instead of being elected like university presidents or directors of other university departments. These IUT have proved to be a great success, selecting their students among an often great number of applicants. An increasing number of their graduates pursue further studies after completion of their degrees (two years).

Reformers are looking for revisions of the curriculum. There is a strong trend towards further professionalization of studies and creation of a variety of new streams and degrees in closer relationship with representatives of major economic and social fields. They are getting organised along new pluridisciplinary lines according to their expressed needs rather than traditional scientific subjects. The latest are the "university professionalized institutes" (*instituts universitaires professionnalisés*, IUP), created in 1991 (187 institutes with 30,000 students). They deliver a "master-engineer" degree (*ingénieur-maître*) in four years. There is a need at present for an harmonization of these various technological and professionalized streams and degrees.

## Research and the universities

The traditional coupling of teaching and research, the basic presumption of the traditional university, although still the basic principle of modern higher education institutions, is no longer an obvious situation in all establishments and streams, for several reasons:

- Nowadays a considerable part of the research activity takes place outside the

University and is financed and controlled by other institutions such as important research centres or associations and corporations. However these centres and corporations still rely heavily on university research staff for carrying out their research projects.

- The majority of the newly built higher education centres in smaller cities cannot offer a great variety of subject-matters nor sufficient research facilities to allow all their staff to do research at the level required for gaining national and international recognition. Moreover the increase in costs of modern scientific equipment has led to a policy of concentration of resources on a limited number of centres of excellence capable to compete internationally.
- The growth of students numbers, the rate of scholastic failure in the first year lead to put more emphasis than before on teaching load and teaching abilities of the academics.

## Financing

Financial difficulties occur for continuing expenditure, library expenditures, and supplementary staff. The average expenditure per student was 35,500FF in 1996 (a year in an IUT costing 53,500 FF and a year in an university engineering school about 89,200FF), of which about 78% is paid for by the State.

The registration fees for public institutions of higher education are determined each year by ministerial decree. These study-fees are very low in public institutions under the Minister for Education, without any proportion to the actual cost of studies. They could not be significantly raised without facing serious political difficulties, although it can be argued that it leads to an invisible income redistribution to the benefit of better-off families whose children participate more in higher education and to the most expensive fields of study such as health sciences.

Students are eligible for financial assistance; there are higher education grants provided on the basis of social criteria (about 370,000 students get these grants in the 1st and 2nd cycles of studies) and on the basis of academic criteria (about 13,000 students get these grants in the 3rd cycle).

Universities are encouraged to increase resources by developing activities based on a cost-recovery principle (as opposed to the tuition-free principle of initial higher education), such as new courses, specially for adults, contracts with corporations for research, expertise or continuing education, greater involvement in projects sponsored by local authorities, etc.

Universities are now encouraged to participate in joint research ventures sponsored by corporations and participate in creation of enterprises. However, prevailing academic views still remain rather hesitant as regards the compatibility between academic and scientific ideals and growing interactions between business enterprises and academics.

## Institutional management and strategic planning capacity

Universities are expected to develop their autonomy, within the framework of national

overall regulations. Their autonomy is threefold:

- administrative autonomy : the university is run by a president elected for five years by the three elected councils of the institution : the governing board, the research board, the studies and student activity board. Each department is also run by an elected director (with exception for the IUT, and engineering schools which are part of a university, whose directors are appointed by the Ministry of education);
- financial autonomy: the institution manages independently the funds allocated by the government, as well as its own resources, of public or private origin, with exception of the job allocations, which are on the Ministry of education budget;
- educational autonomy: the institution establishes the curriculum, the teaching methods, assessment and examination procedures, and delivers the degrees. An overall framework of regulations, however, remains nationally administered: diplomas have to be approved every 4 or 5 years in order to retain the "national diploma" label.

In 1989 the Ministry of Education created a system of four-year contracts which now covers all universities and provides supplementary credits for development of new projects. Universities have been motivated to analyze their strengths and weaknesses and define a strategy project. The system showed up the shortcomings of university management, for example the poor actual knowledge of running costs per discipline. Funds for basic running costs are calculated on standard criteria and formulas based of the number of students in the different categories of disciplines – with accordingly different unit costs –, while a complementary funding system (5-10 per cent of total funds) will finance new projects and take care of specific local costs.

The Ministry and universities are now experimenting and developing new procedures and computerized tools through a joint venture, the "modernization of university management agency", providing management assistance and software for studies, finance and staff management.

## Academic staff and staff development

The rapid expansion of student-numbers in the 60s made important recruitment of teaching staff necessary. The numbers of academic staff in public higher education, from 15,000 in 1963-4, reached 45,000 in 1985-6, and 68 900 in 1996-97 (among them some 11,900 secondary school teachers in higher education, the numbers of which are also growing: they represent 42% of the teachers in the IUT, 9% in the universities).

Furthermore a diversification of teachers categories has taken place to meet this expansion:

- Secondary school teachers have been recruited, with no research commitment and a greater teaching load than university teacher-researchers (384 contact hours a year instead of 192). Some of them enjoy reductions of this load in order to prepare theses and so meet academic conditions to be recruited as teacher-researchers.

- Part-time teaching contracts are reserved for professionals having full-time employment elsewhere.
- Incentives have been designed for researchers from research institutions (like the *Centre national de la recherche scientifique*), to move into university teaching posts for four years, or at least to give some courses.

Various specific incentives (bonuses) were designed in 1990 to acknowledge greater involvement of staff either in teaching, research or administration.

Among the large number of academic staff, many do not have any research activity any more, either because they are not or no longer interested, or have no financial research resources, or are too overloaded with pedagogical and administrative tasks, mostly in undergraduate studies. Attempts to modulate teaching duties according to the actual involvement and productivity in research have not been very successful so far.

## Evaluation

As for other public institutions, greater accountability towards government and society is required from higher education institutions.

Evaluation has always taken place for promotion of academics, based principally on their research achievement, and also for research funding. Efforts are being made to put more emphasis for promotion on the quality of teaching and efficient involvement in university administration and services to students and the community.

More recently an external evaluation board, the national evaluation council (CNE), has been set up, as an agency, independent from the ministry of education. It is responsible for recurrent critical reviews of all activities of higher education institutions (about every 7 years). It stresses the issue of quality not only of research but also of teaching and other activities, such as the quality of management. Evaluation processes are conducted by prior self-assessment report followed by an external visiting committee. There is a general consensus that self-assessment is necessary in addition to external review.

Individual universities have set up internal appraisal systems as well, particularly for teaching quality (teaching methods, supervision and counselling, facilities, study progress), but evaluation of teaching by the students is only in an experimental stage.

# Germany: Günter Reuhl

## 1. Traditional Structures, New Challenges

The prevailing type in higher education in Germany is still the Humboldtian version of the university as an institution combining teaching and research. Besides the traditional universities covering a broad range of disciplines such as humanities, science, law, and medicine, the upcoming industrialization in the 19th century brought about the establishment of the new types of institutes of technology. These institutes combining teaching and research in the wake of the universities finally succeeded in obtaining also the right to confer doctoral degrees, the distinguishing privilege of the traditional universities.

It was at the beginning of the 2nd half of this century when the industry articulated the need for qualified engineers. Therefore, in the seventies, the two-year non-university schools of practical engineering were transformed into "Fachhochschulen" (Universities of Applied Sciences) with four-year education, staff qualified by a Ph.D., and higher entrance requirements. The "Fachhochschulen" offer a professionally oriented education and perform applied research. Basic research and the right to confer doctoral degrees, however, have remained the privilege of traditional universities.

After the unification of Germany the system of universities and "Fachhochschulen" was extended to the east.

Today the following groups of institutions exist in Germany:

- 90 traditional Universities and Technical Universities including 6 Comprehensive Universities combining university- and "Fachhochschul"-programmes and a Distance University with 1.396.400 students
- 157 "Fachhochschulen" (Universities of Applied Sciences) with 442.000 students
- 46 Colleges of Music and Fine Arts

Besides these types there are in some "Lander" (states):

- "Padagogische Hochschulen" (Teacher Training Universities), whereas in most "Lander" teacher training is integrated into universities
- "Berufsakademien," combining a three-year education and training on-the-job; a new type in higher education, established in the last ten years
- Theological Institutes (16) for the education of ministers for the protestant and catholic churches

The total number of students was 1.838.500 in 1996/97, the number of male students 1.05.650 (57,5 %), the number of female students 782.000 (42,5 %). This corresponds roughly to 28,3 % of an age group with variation among the "Lander".

## 2. Political Responsibilities, Public and Private Funding

Universities - from now on this term is used as a generic term for all institutions in higher education - are institutions under the jurisdiction of the "Lander". The Federation administers only a few institutions in special fields. The "Lander" finance higher education including the salaries of professors, which have in almost all "Lander" the status of civil servants, not employees of the universities. The Federation contributes 50 % to the investments in buildings and heavy equipment and also finances special research programmes.

There are only few private universities and "Fachhochschulen" in Germany. Private universities or "Fachhochschulen" may be established with the approval of the "Lander" according to standards comparable to that of state institutions.

## 3. Admission, Fees

Following the view of higher education as a vital force in the progress of society and culture, school education as well as higher education in public institutions are free both for German nationals and foreign students. At present, the introduction of fees in Germany is under discussion. Opinions are controversial between the governments of the "Lander".

Admission is based on the school leaving certificate awarded after 13/12 years of schooling. Entrance examinations have not existed in Germany until now. The German constitution guarantees entrance into higher education to all German school leavers with qualifying certificates. How far the constitution would allow the introduction of admission examinations and what the effects of their introduction would be is controversial in Germany. It is envisaged that universities may get the right to attribute 20 % of the places by own admission procedures.

In some disciplines such as medicine, pharmacy, psychology etc. a "numerus clausus" is practiced. Admission in numerus clausus disciplines is based on grades in the school leaving certificate and on "waiting periods" to give a chance to applicants with less good grades, too.

Foreign students are admitted on the basis of school leaving certificates. Candidates whose school education is not considered fully equivalent to German entrance standards have the possibility to attend a preliminary course of 1 year.

## 4. More Competition, more Autonomy

To enhance efficiency of higher education by more competition is one of the main aims of the reforms intended at present. More competition requires more institutional autonomy and modifications in financing procedures. Goals of the reforms are:

- to fund universites not only on the basis of the number of matriculated students but also considering the number of graduates and results in research
- to ease restrictions for the budget and to introduce bloc-grants

- to strengthen the responsibility of deans and rectors giving them more influence in staff affairs and salaries
- to review the appointment procedures for professors and to make more salaries dependent on the performance of the professors
- to strengthen the cooperation with the world outside of universities.

## 5. Quality Assurance, Accessment

Universities in Germany are ruled by a framework of laws issued by the Federation and the "Lander", defining the status of the institutions, regulating their organization and the degrees they confer and precising the requirements of the recruitment of the staff and admission of students. Through this system and state monitoring by the ministries and the public funding, a homogeneous standard of university education is guaranteed in Germany.

## 6. Innovation, Programmes, Degrees

The main area of reforms and innovation is the adjustment of education to progress in science and new needs of society and the professional world. Most programmes of studies at German universities do not present a rigid curriculum with a sequence of prescribed courses and yearly or semestrial examinations. Instead, they are organized in a sequence of two large stages of basic studies ("Grundstudium") and advanced studies ("Hauptstudium") with an intermediate examination at the end of the first stage and a final degree examination at the end of the second.

The minimum time to be invested is 5 years for university degrees and 4 years for "Fachhochschul"-degrees. To increase effectiveness of studies it is considered to establish an accreditation agency for specific programmes.

Final degrees in the more professionalized areas of engineering, natural and social sciences (physicists, chemists, economists etc.) are called "Diplom", whereas degrees in the humanities are namend "Magister". Degrees for the state regulated professions (Medicine, Law and Teaching) are called "Staatsexamen"(state exdusination). "Fachhochschulen" award only "Diplom" degrees.

With the exception of medical studies the centrepiece of the degree examinations is a final research thesis requiring about three months and more for their completion. Therefore, all holders of a university degree are eligible for a doctorate. This function of the degree makes in our view the German university degree comparable to foreign Master's degrees and not to Bachelor's degrees. Holders of a "Fachhochschul-Diplom" have the possibility to prepare a doctoral thesis under certain conditions, so do foreign holders of a Bachelor's degree from most countries.

This system implies that for doctoral degrees (Ph.D.) there are no formalized programmes. Doctoral work starts with the elaboration of the "dissertation" under surveillance of a professor. As in other systems the main requirements for a doctoral degree are a substantial research dissertation and final oral examinations.

## 7. More Support for Research

As in other countries, research in Germany is organized in three institutional settings: universities, specialized state-financed research institutes, private industry.

University research is a main pillar in this setting. Besides university research exist as prominent research facilities the institutes of the Max-Planck-Society performing fundamental research. Within the university sector Germany has not chosen to concentrate research activities on a small group of "research universities" or "centers of excellence". Nor has Germany decided to place research in an "Academy" leaving universities a minor role only. Germany has tried to provide equal research facilities at all universities at a high standard. A minimum of one third of the professors' work load should be reserved for independent research.

Public funding for special research activities in universities is financed either by the "German Research Organization" (Deutsche Forschüngsgemeinschaft) or by the Federal Government (large scale programmes). Special projects for foreign researchers are financed by stipends of the "Alexander von Humboldt-Foundation". Universities contribute to the funding of their research activities by attracting grants from private industry and are expected to increase these revenues.

## 8. Internationalization

The growing internationalization in higher education is supported in Germany by exchange programmes for German and foreign students administered by the "Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst" (German Academic Exchange Service) including the ERASMUS Grants of the European Union and by German Foundations. About 6 % of the students in Germany are foreign students and about 2.3 % of German students are going abroad.

As a member of UNESCO, the Council of Europe and the European Union Germany benefits of the conventions and directives on academic and professional recognition adopted by these organizations. Bilateral agreements between German universities and universities in other states as well as state agreements between Germany and other states enhance mobility and recognition. To promote internationalization German universities have now decided to introduce Bachelor's- and Master's degrees besides their traditional degrees. Some university programmes are offered in English, in many universities doctoral dissertations may be presented in English. On request of students degree documents in future will be issued in English language.

## 9. Towards the 21st Century

In the current transformation of societies into science-driven entities higher education will gain more importance. Higher education is not only a service to enhance private professional career chances for individuals, but also a main source for the intellectual formation of the whole society and therefore deserves sufficient public support. Moreover, higher education is a strong component for industrial progress and international competition of industries. Not less important is higher education for the non-industrial sector, where higher education with the education of doctors, lawyers and

school teachers has traditional functions and will get new tasks in the fast expanding communication sector.

World-wide there is an increacing tendency towards inappropriate funding of university research. One of the main tasks in higher education for the 21st century is to strengthen research in universities by more financial support, foundation of Interdisciplinary Centres, a closer cooperation with research institutions outside of universities and industry, the foundation of industrial parks and cooperative centres.

In the last ten years internationalization of higher education became a topic gaining more and more attention. Besides student mobility institutions themselves have developed new forms of spreading their educational offerings, e.g. by adding branch campusses abroad or by introducing international programmes and by using the new media. In a similar way as economy, but not as rapid and as strong, higher education becomes an international market and a field of international competition. This is a challenge and a chance for all national systems since internationalization will create new perspectives reorganizing national systems of higher education.

# India: Jandhyala B G Tilak

This paper presents a modest attempt to review the trends in the growth of higher education in India and the recent attempts to reform it during the last 1-2 decades. The account presented here is not an exhaustive one. In fact, only a few important issues have been touched here.

## Country Profile

India is one of the most ancient civilizations in the world with a rich cultural heritage. Ever since India attained independence in 1947, and became a Republic in 1950, the country has made rapid progress in terms of social, economic and cultural development. India has a federal system of government with two-layer administration: the union government at the centre, and state governments at state (or provincial) level. Presently there are 25 states governed by elected legislatures and seven union territories administered by the union government. States are further divided into districts; and there are currently about 450 districts, in all.

The country, geographically spread over 3,287 thousand sq. km., has an estimated population of 936 million in 1995 living in more than half a million villages. Accounting for about 16 percent of the world's population, India is only next to China in the world. With respect to the size of the total gross national product, India ranks fairly high even among the developed countries, particularly after adjusting for purchasing power parity; but the national income per capita is comparatively very low, (US $ 340) in 1995.

## Education in India

The education edifice in India is one of the largest ones in the world, with a network of more than 925 thousand institutions with 190 million students enrolled at various levels in 1996-97. The number of students in India outnumbers the total population of united Germany, England and Canada taken together. During the fifty years of independence period, the education system got deepened and widened as well. According to the 1991 census, the effective literacy (of the age-group 7+) rate was 52.2 percent.

Education was a state responsibility until 1976, when it was brought into a 'concurrent' list of the Constitution of India that gave more powers and responsibilities to the union government. Though education is a concurrent subject, state governments enjoy considerable freedom with respect to several aspects in general. At higher education level, the University Grants Commission (UGC) plays a significant role. Universities are established by the union or state government and are funded by the UGC and state governments. Both union and state governments together invest about 3.5 percent of national income on education (1995-96). This amounts to about ten percent of all government expenditure. The government has resolved to raise the proportion of national income to be invested in education to at least six percent by the beginning of the 21st century.

## Higher Education in India

### The System of Higher Education

Higher education is offered in India in a variety of institutions, as described in Table 1. The total number of universities include six open universities -- one central university and five state universities -- all run by the government. They also include four universities exclusively meant for women, while all other institutions are open to both males and females. There are no universities exclusively for males. Similarly there are nearly a thousand colleges in the country which give admission exclusively to women students. In addition to providing most of the courses available in other institutions, these colleges and universities provide a few additional courses which are of special interest to women.

Apart from degree awarding university level institutions, there are 8,500 colleges that provide mostly bachelor's and some times master's level education. A majority of the colleges are arts, science and commerce colleges offering education in humanities, natural sciences, arts and commerce. There are above 400 engineering and technical colleges, 655 medical colleges and nearly 700 teacher education/training colleges. While many universities in India provide general as well as professional education, there are some universities which exclusively provide professional education, and some exclusively general.

Most of the higher education institutions in India are public institutions. There are no private universities so far, though efforts were initiated a few years ago to allow opening of private universities. There are, however, private colleges in a big number. A majority of the private colleges are financially supported by the state. Self financing private colleges receiving no state support are small in number and their rapid increase is a recent phenomenon.

Higher education in India is coordinated by several agencies. While most of general higher education falls within the jurisdiction of the UGC, professional institutions are coordinated by different bodies. The All-India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) is responsible for coordination of technical and management education institutions. The other statutory bodies are Medical Council of India (MCI), Central Council of Indian Medicine, the Homeopathy Central Council, the Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR), Indian Nursing Council, the Dental Council, the Pharmacy Council, the Bar Council of India, the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), etc. There are also a few such bodies at state level, such as State Councils of Higher Education that were established recently. There is yet another type of a coordinating agency, called Association of Indian Universities (AIU), which was earlier known as Inter-University Board of India. All the universities and other institutions are members of the AIU. The AIU has no executive powers, but plays an important role as an agency of dissemination of information and as an advisor both to the government and/or UGC and universities.

### Growth of Higher Education in India

In modern India, particularly in the post-independence period, higher education has

expanded fast, and higher education is mostly public in nature. Today India ranks fairly high in terms of the size of the network of higher education institutions, with 6.4 million students enrolled in 1995-96. The teaching force numbers about 240 thousand. The total enrolment however, forms only about six percent of the relevant age-group (17-23) population. The corresponding ratio in developed countries is on average above 40 percent, and in the developing counties seven percent. Though the enrolment ratio is not high, in terms of numbers the output is very large. The scientific and technical manpower India could become the third largest reservoir in the world. Compared to the situation that the country inherited from colonial rulers about half a century ago, the figures given in Table 2 mark a phenomenal expansion of the system.

Such an expansion was possible, inter alia, due to public financing of higher education. In relative terms, the share of the government in financing higher education has increased to about 80 percent of the total expenditure on higher education, and the shares of all other sources declined, as shown in Table 3.

**Recent Reforms in Higher Education**

After the National Policy on Education (1986) was formulated, quite a few important policy reforms were introduced in higher education in India that have significant influence on quality, quantity and equity in higher education. To improve the quality of higher education through orientation and reorientation of college teachers on a regular basis, a number of academic staff colleges were established. There are presently 45 such colleges. In addition, a few university departments also organise refresher courses to college teachers. Second, to encourage institutional innovations and experimentation, emphasis has been placed on autonomy; and a good number of colleges are given autonomy under the programme of establishment of autonomous colleges. Third, with a view to improve access to higher education in rural areas and also at the same time to improve relevance of higher education, emphasis was laid on opening up of rural institutions of higher education and open learning systems on the one hand, and introduction of vocational courses at college level. Lastly, realising the importance of technology in higher education, information technology has been given high attention and universities and colleges are provided on a large scale with computers, and other facilities for modernisation and automation.

Most recent reforms include reforms relating to financing higher education, which are briefly described below.

**Decline in Government Expenditure on Higher Education**

All the programmes of not only expansion, but also those that aim at improvement in quality and equity require huge resources. The economic reform policies introduced in India at the beginning of the 1990s, however, did not allow the government to allocate adequate resources to higher education. In fact, the trends in public expenditure on higher education during the 1990s have not been positive. Budgetary outlays for higher education have been seriously squeezed. Rather, it is often being stated that government's ability to finance higher education in India has come to a saturation level.

a) The share of higher education in the total expenditure on education of the union

government has declined from 32 percent to 22.5 percent between 1989-90 and 1995-96 and the corresponding figures relating to state budgets declined from 12.7 percent to 11 percent (Table 3).

b) The relative priority given to higher education in allocation of resources in the Five Year Plans has declined very significantly from 25 per cent in the fourth Five Year Plan to seven percent in the eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) (Table 4).

c) In real terms, the annul 'plan' (development) expenditure on higher education has declined by about 15 percent between 1989-90 and 1994-95. Even the 'non-plan' (maintenance) expenditure has declined by twelve percent during this period, causing serious problems in maintaining even status quo of the universities.

d) Declines in absolute levels of expenditure are very steep in case of expenditure on research -- both in case of general and technical education, the latter suffering more.

e) Central government's expenditure on scholarships in 1994-95 declined to one-third of the level in 1989-90 even in current prices (and in real prices, the decline is by four-fifths) (Table 5).

While one can note some more details on the decline in public expenditure on higher education in India after the adjustment policies were introduced, these figures are sufficient to conclude that public resources have not flown into higher education sufficiently to maintain the huge system at the pre-reform period level in terms of quantity, quality and equity in higher education. In fact, higher education has been subject to severe neglect in terms of not only resource allocation, but also in terms of coherent policy and information.

**Recent Attempts to Reform Higher Education**

Facing serious resource crunch, the Government of India indicated that subsidization of higher education would be gradually reduced by about fifty percent in the next few years. The government also appointed two committees on mobilisation of additional resources for higher education -- one for technical education institutions and another for central universities. The two committees have emphasised the need for making special efforts by higher education institutions to raise their own resources. Among the various measures to mobilise additional resources, important ones suggested are:

- Institutions should raise the fee levels in such a way that at least 20 percent of the annual recurring cost per student is recovered from the students in the form of fees and from other sources. (compared to the present level of about 15 percents as shown in table 6)
- Faculty of these institutions may be encouraged to participate in consultancy activities.
- Institutions should also raise resources from other internal and external sources, such as sale of output, voluntary donations from industry and community at large, and by diversifying their areas of activities, etc.

- Loan programmes may have to be revitalised as an importance source of revenues for higher education in the long run.

Following the formal freezing of budgetary resources for universities and colleges, and the above recommendations, many universities and other institutions of higher education have been required to reform their fee structures. Accordingly there have been modest to steep increases in students' fees of various types -- tuition fees, examination fees, admission fees, application fees, registration fees, etc., in several universities and colleges.

Banking sector has been persuaded to launch commercially viable education loans to students going for higher education, particulary higher professional/technical education.

Government has also offered generous tax concessions to contributions to higher education institutions and incentives are also offered to institutions in the utilisation of these funds.

Along with general increases in fees, universities also started responding to market demands to make quick financial gains. These responses include offering 'marketable' self financing courses, such as hotel management, training on handling computer packages, fashion technology etc., for which full or more than full cost fees are charged from the students. Since the aim is to quickly encash the demand for such courses, such courses are mostly short term in nature and include training programmes.

In the same context, it is also important to note the shift in emphasis in the universities from higher education to training. For example, while computer engineering (hardware and software) has been an important area of study in the universities for a long time, universities now tend to offer courses in the use of computer applications and packages and mechanics of computers (assembling) as they become more saleable than the former ones. In the process universities have to compete with training institutions that come up in formal and informal sectors of the economy. Still the training in the universities is preferred to outside, not only because university training is relatively cheaper than in commercial training institutions, but also more importantly, universities award 'recognised' degrees and certificates.

Further, distance/open education or correspondence courses are also viewed by the universities favourably more as revenue generating courses than as academically important avenues of imparting learning. Several studies have shown that many distance education centres in the universities have generated huge surpluses for the universities.

## Summary

One can summarise the emerging trends, the recent reforms and their likely or tentative consequence in higher education in India, which are somewhat similar to those in many developing countries that are in transition, in the form of a table (Table 7). These trends are not exhaustive; they are only indicative. The features listed under the two categories viz., 'conventional system' and 'emerging system' include some of the changes that have taken place and are slowly taking place in some parts of the country. Neither of the two systems is final in any sense.

While some reforms are necessary to improve the efficiency of higher education, some of the attempts to reform higher education seem to go against some well-cherished functions of higher education. Emphasis is laid on financial efficiency, measured in terms of resource generation in stead of academic excellence. There is a need to balance the main functions of higher education, and resource needs of the system. The basic characteristics of higher education, such as the 'Public good' nature of higher education and social value of higher education, on the one hand and the needs of the new globalized Indian economy on the other hand, should be kept in mind while formulating reforms for the development of higher education.

Table 1: **Type and Number of Higher Education Institutions in India, 1996-97**

| | Number |
|---|---|
| Universities | 178 |
| Institutions Deemed to be Universities | 39 |
| Institutions of National Importance | 11 |
| Research Institutions | 65 |
| Colleges for General Education | 6759 |
| Colleges for Professional Education | 1770 |

Source: *Selected Educational Statistics, 1996-97* (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, 1997).

Table 2: **Growth in Higher Education in India**

| | | 1950-51 | 1990-91 | 1995-96 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Institutions | Universities* | 30 | 177 | 207 |
| | Colleges | 750 | 7346 | 9278 |
| | Enrolment ('000s) | 263 | 4925 | 6425 |
| | Teachers ('000s) | 24.0 | 272.7 | 310.6 |

Note: * includes institutions deemed to be universities, but excludes other institutions.
Source: UGC *Annual Report 1995-96* (New Delhi: University Grants Commission); and *Selected Educational Statistics* (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development) (relevant years).

Table 3: **Share of Higher Education in Total Expenditure on Education in India** (%)

| | Centre | States | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1989-90 | 32.16 | 12.74 | 14.69 |
| 1990-91 | 28.94 | 11.81 | 13.44 |
| 1991-92 | 28.92 | 11.43 | 13.03 |
| 1992-93 | 28.09 | 11.45 | 10.80 |
| 1993-94 | 24.53 | 12.15 | 13.26 |
| 1994-95R | 25.62 | 11.60 | 12.86 |
| 1994-96B | 22.52 | 11.03 | 12.00 |

Note: R: Revised estimates; B: Budget estimates
Source: Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development) [various years]

| Table 4: **Share of Higher Education in Total Education Expenditure in Five Year Plans in India** | |
|---|---|
| Plan/Period | Percent |
| Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) | 18 |
| Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) | 14 |
| Annual Plans (1990-92) | 11 |
| Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) | 7 |
| Source: Tilak (1996). | |

Table 5: **Declining Government Expenditure on Higher Education in India** (Index of Growth in Real Expenditure on Higher Education)

| | Total | | | on Research | | on Scholarships | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Plan | Non-Plan | Total | General | Technical | Plan | Non-Plan | Total |
| 1989-90 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1990-91 | 75.8 | 97.1 | 94.3 | 99.0 | 19.0 | 19.8 | 48.3 | 37.6 |
| 1991-92 | 71.4 | 89.2 | 86.9 | 94.4 | 33.9 | 59.3 | 36.9 | 45.4 |
| 1992-93 | 66.3 | 91.5 | 88.2 | 79.0 | 15.7 | 59.8 | 40.4 | 47.8 |
| 1993-94R | 75.2 | 92.8 | 90.5 | 83.3 | 29.5 | 14.6 | 37.1 | 28.6 |
| 1994-95B | 85.5 | 87.7 | 87.4 | 71.7 | 35.8 | 3.0 | 33.4 | 21.9 |

Note: R: Revised estimates; B: Budget estimates
Source: Tilak (1996).

| Table 6: **Sources of Funds for Higher Education in India** (%) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Government | Fees | Others | Total |
| 1950-51 | 49.4 | 36.8 | 13.8 | 100 |
| 1960-61 | 53.5 | 34.8 | 11.7 | 100 |
| 1970-71 | 61.0 | 25.5 | 13.5 | 100 |
| 1980-81 | 72.8 | 17.4 | 10.8 | 101 |
| 1986-87 | 75.9 | 12.6 | 11.5 | 100 |
| Source: Based on *Education in India* (various years) (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development. | | | | |

Table 7: **Emerging Trends in Policy, Planning and Financing of Higher Education in Developing Countries**

| Feature | Conventional System | Emerging System |
|---|---|---|
| Approach | Welfare | Market Approach |
| Management | Public | Mixed and Private |
| Financing | Public financing | Private Financing |
| Private Institutions | | |
| Financing | State assisted | Self Financing |
| Recognition | Government recognition | Instns requiring no Govt recognition |
| Degree/Diplomas | Degree awarding institutions | Non-Degree (Diploma/ Certificate) awarding Instns |
| Considerations | Philanthropy, charity, education | commercial: profit |
| Fees | No fees/Low Fees | Introduction of Fees/ High Fees |
| *Student Loans* | No loans | Introduction of Loan Programmes |
| | Commercially ineffective loans | Effective/Commercially Viable Loan Programmes |
| Security/mortgage | no security | security/mortgage |
| Repayment | high default | expected high recovery |
| Basis | Educational qualifications and economic needs (merit and means) | commercial viability |
| Disciplines of study | Scholarly/academic | Self-Financing/Commercially viable/ profitable courses and training |
| Mode | formal/full-time education | Open/Distance/Part-Time Education |
| Selection criteria for Heads of Instns | academic/administrative background | Expertise in Financial/ Money Management; and in Resource Generation |

# Indonesia: Edi Guhardja

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In 1976 the Directorate General of Higher Education (DG) adopted the First Long Term Education Plan 1976 - 1985 (Tisna Amidjaja 1976). In its introduction, the importance of development strategy was stressed. Three processes should be conducted: (1) a process toward National Higher Education System, (2) a process to a better performance, and (3) a process to face challenges. The main issues faced on that time were: (1) low production, (2) limited carrying capacity, (3) a limited capability to grow (4) unbalance condition among universities, (5) inappropriate distribution in scientific disciplines, (6) student condition, and (7) public service implementation. Based on the situation five main programs were carried out: (1) increasing productivity, (2) increasing carrying capacity, (3) improving public service, (4) improving student education, and (5) increasing capability to develop. Development budget was allocated based on Planning Programming Budgeting System (PPBS). Each university made a proposal one year ahead to DG. In the end of March universities will be informed on the allocated budget allowed. Usually it is far below the proposed amount.

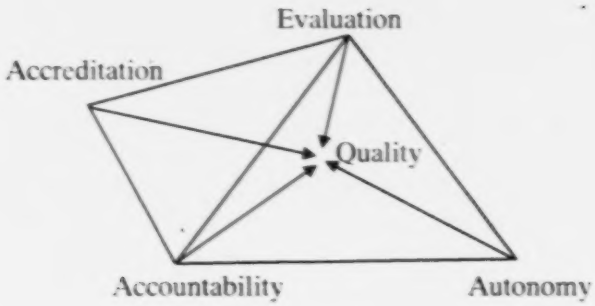
In 1985 the Second Long-Term Education Plan 1986 - 1995 was confirmed (Ranuwihardjo 1985). Seven issues were identified: (1) quality, (2) productivity, (3) quantity, (4) relevancy, (5) education opportunity, (6) future condition, and (7) system dynamics. PPBS was still used.

In 1996 the Third Long-Term Education Plan 1996 - 2005 was issued (Soehendro 1996). A new paradigm was adopted, where quality as a focus through a management system, where autonomy, accountability, accreditability, and evaluation are the important components. Part of the development budget is based on competitive block grant.

## 2. A NEW PARADIGM

In February 1995, the DG has established a six members team to develop a draft for the Higher Education Strategic Plan 1996 - 2005 (Soehendro 1996). The plan recommends a new paradigm in university management, implementing many aspects of university autonomy and more decentralized approach. Since the new paradigm will be fundamentally differed from the previously implemented approach, tremendous changes in the attitude and spirit at all levels of higher education management are also required.

The new approach will be put the proposing unit as the accountable unit. The mechanism where the proposal and plan are developed through a bottom-up approach, and the proposer will also become the implementing unit, is an implementation of autonomy. The process of evaluation, as an integral part of the academic life, can be consistently applied to the units themselves and to the activities proposed. The external evaluation will be conducted by an independent agency, which is the National Accreditation Board (BAN). The proper implementation of the four aspects mentioned will ensure that the quality can be achieved. These five interrelated aspects of the new paradigm can be represented as a single tetrahedron structure.




Autonomy

The right to plan and to implement the task and activities of the function in education and research.

Accountability

- The appropriateness of the goal with the philosophy, moral, and ethics which are adopted by the society;
- The appropriateness of the goal with the activities output, outcome, and impact;
- Responsible for the utilization of sources used to reach the goal;
- Not miss use and diverse from the stated goal;
- Auditable by the stakeholders on the implementation of the function – education, research and public service.

Accreditation

- Internal/self evaluation on the performance quality to plan the functional activities;
- External evaluation by an accreditation institute on the criteria and requirement adopted for the activities;
- Peer review or peer evaluation to gauge the validity of the activities.

Evaluation

- Evaluation on the performance quality;
- Evaluation on the management components to run the activities.

Activities should be carried out, as far as possible, by the respective proposer and avoiding the involvement of other parties. This can be done through a contract agreement. The accountability and auditibility are, therefore, rest solely to the unit. Post audit mechanism will be implemented to evaluate the result, and it will directly affect the resource allocation in the next period.

The new approach will elicit stronger ownership on the part of the university, broaden participation in the planning stage, and higher commitment from the beneficiaries. These changes will put the university as the accountable party in the performance evaluation that should be conducted at the later stage.

Resource allocation policy will be shifted toward relying on proposal review and performance evaluation mechanism, forcing the beneficiaries to develop their plan more carefully and realistically. Such changes are so fundamental, that many universities might not be able to cope with the challenges without given adequate time to prepare and sufficient assistantship to develop the needed capability.

## 3. PROJECTS FOLLOWING THE NEW PARADIGM

As example of activities following the new paradigm, four projects will be reported:

### 3.1 University Research Council (URC)

The URC was established in 1993 (DG, 1996 a). It has two major functions: (1) to administer all existing and new DG's grant and fellowship programs for graduate education and research, and (2) to provide the DG with policy advice on the development of graduate education and research capacity..

The URC may develop programs and recommend the commission structures, memberships, policies, and procedures to the DG. Commission members and the URC secretariat work within the policies established by the council. Seven discipline based standing commissions and three special commissions were established. The commissions will (1) develop program descriptions and establish eligibility and selection criteria (2) determine the timing of proposal submissions and award announcement (3) propose methods of evaluation (4) evaluate proposals and make recommendation and (5) monitor activities undertaken under the grants.

### 3.2 University Research for Graduate Education (URGE)

URGE was started in 1994 (DG 1996 a). It is competitive grant and fellowship program. It consist of (1) Center Grant Program (2) Team Grant Program for Graduate Research (3) Young Academic Program (4) In-Country Merit Fellowship Program (5) In-Country Pre-Graduate Training Program (6) Sandwich Program (7) Scientific Journal Program, and (8) Research Publication Program.

The objective of Center Grant Program is to improve physical, managerial and human resource infra structure for high quality research integrated with graduate training in selected university units which demonstrated potential. The objective of Team Grant Program for Graduate Research is to promote high quality research activities that integrate graduate students as part of the research team. The Young Academic Program is meant to alleviate problems arising from the re-entry of recently graduating Ph.D. into their own science and technology community. In-country Merit Fellowship Program is intended to attract qualified and capable students into domestic graduate education programs by providing enhanced financial support. In country pre-graduate Training Program is to improve the quality of entering graduate students through

provision of additional training prior to graduate programs. Sandwich program is intended to improve the quality of graduate education program through sharing of capabilities with foreign institutions. Scientific Journal Program is intended to improve scientific communication in Indonesia and to increase recognition internationally through improvement of the quality of refereed national scientific journal. Research Publication Program is intended to encourage university researchers to write scientific articles for publication in reputable and refereed international journals.

### 3.3 Development for Under Graduate Education (DUE)

The main objective of the project which was implemented since 1996 is to improve quality in undergraduate education by providing capacities required for beginning sustainable improvement (DG 1996 b). The support provided should be used to strengthen the universities priority undergraduate programs and major central facilities so that better and improved condition can be achieved, reflected by indicators such as: (1) courses are organized well with appropriate staff attendance and consistency (2) libraries and laboratory work are integrated into student education (3) curriculum is appropriate and innovative, and serves the needs of students, and (4) students are graduated on a timely basis and get employed within an acceptable time period.

Eligible universities could make proposals which consist of a self evaluation and plan to improve undergraduate education. Proposals were evaluated by the URC. Six criteria were used for awarding grants to universities (1) leadership and institutional commitment (2) efficiency and productivity (3) relevance (4) internal management and organization (5) academic atmosphere, and (6) sustainability.

### 3.4 Quality for Undergraduate Education (QUE)

The main objective of the project which was started in 1997 is to strengthen and improve selected undergraduate programs to prepare them for producing graduates with ability to compete beyond the national market (DG 1997). The support provided should be used to strengthen the undergraduate study programs so that better and improved educational process can be achieved. Specific objectives are predefined as to improve (1) relevance (2) academic atmosphere (3) internal management and organization including institutional commitment (4) sustainability as well as (5) efficiency and productivity, abbreviated as RAISE.

The proposed support will be such that it will create a significant added value and positive impact. The role of the study programs in developing their expertise and producing better graduates will be taken as one of the prime selection criteria in providing support.

## 4. SUMMARY

In general the reformation trend of higher education in Indonesia is following the national development, where policy on activities, budgeting and management are shifted from:

centralization to decentralization,

allocation to competition,
top down to bottom up (self evaluation),
sectoral to regional,
government subsidy to revenue generation,

and where quality, relevancy, and efficiency should be maintained.

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# Japan: Kiyotake Oki

## 1. Higher Education System in Japan and Its Task

### 1.1 Introduction

Japanese higher education has experienced a dramatic expansion and development in the last 40 years. It has taken an important role in the economic, social and cultural development of the country. But in recent years, fundamental changes in the society, both institutional and non-institutional, have affected the education system as a whole, especially the universities. The universities now are experiencing a variety of problems and difficulties, and the higher education system must respond to them. Consequently, the 1990s is considered as "the decade of university reform". The reform included not only the teaching aspect but also scientific research.

### 1.2 Higher Education Institutions in Japan

The Japanese higher education system consist of: 1) Universities; 2) Graduate Schools; 3) Junior Colleges; 4) Colleges of Technology; 5) Special Training Colleges; and 6) Miscellaneous Schools.

(1) The Universities (*Daigaku*) conduct teaching and research in any academic disciplines and provide students with advanced knowledge. Universities offer many courses usually with a duration of four years except the medical and dental courses (six years). Of the total number of universities, 73.5% are private universities.

(2) Some universities set up Graduate Schools (*Daigaku-in*) which offer master's degree (*Shuushi-Katei*) (usually two years in duration) and doctor's degree (*Hakushi-Katei*) (at least five years).

(3) The Junior Colleges (*Tanki-Daigaku*) conduct teaching in some fields of subject areas and develop the abilities of the students required for working life mainly. The course of study usually takes two to three years. Those who have successfully completed a junior college course are awarded the title of associate.

(4) Colleges of Technology (*Koutou-Senmon-Gakkou*) provide in depth instruction for equipping technological skills necessary for employment. Unlike universities or junior colleges, colleges of technology enroll junior high school graduates. The course of study is five years.

(5) Special Training Colleges (*Senmon-Gakkou*) mainly provide vocational training courses for students; and

(6) Miscellaneous Schools (*Kakushu-Gakkou*) provide courses for vocational training and leisure activities, and include schools which prepare for university entrance examination (*Yobikou*) .

The number of institutions and the corresponding involvement are shown below:

*Table 1. Number of institutions as of 1st May 1997*

| | Total | National | Public** | Private |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Universities* | 586 | 98 | 57 | 431 |
| Graduate Schools | 420 | 98 | 37 | 285 |
| Junior Colleges | 595 | 29 | 62 | 504 |
| Colleges of Technology | 62 | 54 | 5 | 3 |
| Special Training College | 3,546 | 147 | 220 | 3,179 |
| Miscellaneous Schools | 2,601 | 2 | 51 | 2,548 |

* including the universities which have graduate schools.
** "Public" institutions are managed by the local governments.

*Table 2. Enrolment data as of 1st May 1997*

| | Total | National | Public | Private |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Universities | 2,633,790 | 614,669 | 91,642 | 1,927,479 |
| Graduate Schools | 171,547 | 109,466 | 7,500 | 54,581 |
| Junior Colleges | 473,279 | 11,981 | 24,091 | 437,206 |
| Colleges of Technology | 56,294 | 49,203 | 4,511 | 2,580 |
| Special Training College | 788,996 | 18,398 | 36,017 | 734,581 |
| Miscellaneous Schools | 279,946 | 38 | 3,214 | 276,700 |

### 1.3 Social Conditions Influencing Higher Education

Today Japanese higher education system has to respond to the various changes in the social conditions. They are as follows:

(1) Birth rate is declining, and so the number of 18 year old individuals who could be admitted to universities and other higher education institutions correspondingly decreased (from 2.05 million in 1992 to 1.62 million in 1998).

(2) There is a transition to lifelong learning society, not only traditional young people but mature people can go to higher education institutions.

(3) Accountability movement in society and towards universities is evident. Many public institutions must be accountable to the society, and universities must be accountable to their students.

(4) There is a transition from mass higher education system to universal-access and universal-attendance as Martin Trow mentioned.

## 2. The Establishment of the University Council and Its Recommendations

### 2.1 Background

In order to deal with various issues in education, the National Council on Educational Reform (*Rinji Kyoiku Singikai*, 1984-1987), which was established in August 1984 as an ad hoc advisory committee to the Prime Minister, submitted four reports. The Council has presented three basic points for educational reform; 1) the principle of putting emphasis on individuality; 2) the transition to lifelong learning system; and 3) coping with various changes in the society, including internationalization and use of information media.

These reports have influenced to all aspects of Japanese education including higher education. The Council recommended to establish the new University Council for improving not only universities but the higher education institutions as a whole.

### 2.2 Thrusts and recommendations of the University Council reports

The University Council was founded in 1987 and published various reports to respond to some consultation papers from the *Monbusho* (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture) which initiated the reform of universities in 1990s.

The thrusts of the University Council are: 1) advancement of education and research; 2) individualization of higher education; and 3) revitalization of organization and management.

Followings are the reports published from 1988 to 1998.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1) | 1988.12 | Allowing more Flexibility in the Existing Systems of Graduate Schools |
| (2) | 1991.03 | Improving Education System in Universities |
| (3) | 1991.03 | Improving Degree System and Evaluation of Graduate Schools |
| (4) | 1991.03 | The Establishment of the National Institute for Academic Degree |
| (5) | 1991.03 | Improving Junior Colleges Education |
| (6) | 1991.03 | Improving Education in Colleges of Technology |
| (7) | 1991.05 | Plan of Improvement on Higher Education System after 1993 |
| (8) | 1991.05 | Improving Graduate Schools |
| (9) | 1991.05 | Amendment of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities and of the Degree Regulations |
| (10) | 1991.06 | Amendment of the Standards for the Establishment of Colleges of Technology |
| (11) | 1991.11 | The Quantitative Development of Graduate Schools |
| (12) | 1993.09 | Doctor Degree Course as the Part Time Course (mainly with Evening Program) |

(13) 1994.06 Improving Employment System of Teachers

(14) 1995.09 Facilitation of the Management of Universities

(15) 1996.10 Improving the Fixed Term Contract with University Staff

(16) 1997.01 The Future Plans of Higher Education after 2000

(17) 1997.12 The Graduate Schools with the Media Facilities

(18) 1997.12 Amendment of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities with Distance Learning Education

(19) 1997.12 The Further Improvement of Higher Education

Currently, the University Council is preparing a new report which will introduce an external evaluation system and a system whereby students can not get credit easily.

**2.3 Main recommendations**

The recommendations of the University Council reports were varied from management to policy-making, from plans to the amendment of the regulations, from graduate school level to undergraduate level, and from junior colleges to colleges of technology. The most important issue was change of the Standards for the establishment of all types of higher education institutions from rigid to general and flexible procedures (*Taiko-ka*).

(1) Improvement of university education: It includes the abolition of subject areas which led to the abolition of departments of general education (*Kyoyo-bu*, or *Kyoyo-katei*) in many universities, both national and private.

(2) Relaxation of criteria for credit: Usually Japanese universities adopted yearly course system, but some universities introduced semester course system according to curricular reform.

(3) Credits for study from educational institutions other than universities: Some universities accept credits for study from other higher educations.

(4) Curricular reform: Many universities and departments undertook curricular reform. They prepared and published their own syllabus.

(5) Provision of greater flexibility in the graduate schools: Based on the promotions of the graduate schools, the training of specialized human resources is added to the training of researcher, especially in doctoral degree courses.

(6) Establishment of day/evening programs: This leads to an increase in the number of enrolled mature students who have job.

(7) Relaxation of limits on the duration of master's degree courses: It was changed from two years to one year for exceptional (gifted) students.

(8) Greater flexibility in graduate school entrance qualification: Exceptional students who finished three years undergraduate course, can go to the master's degree course (usually four years), and those who completed a master course in one year, can go to the doctoral degree course (usually two years).

(9) Establishment of the National Institution for Academic Degrees (*Gakui-Juyo-Kiko*, NIAD): The NIAD awards academic degrees to those who obtain a certificate or earn credits in an educational institution other than universities.

(10) Improvement of junior colleges and colleges of technology: Their graduates are eligible for the title "associate" (*Jun-Gakushi*).

(11) Introduction of a self-monitoring and self-evaluation system: Any institution in higher education system, from universities to special training colleges, from undergraduate courses to graduate schools, is expected to introduce the self-monitoring and self-evaluation and to publish their results.

(12) Introduction of the selective fixed-term contracts with faculty members: This does not mean the abolition of tenure. Any university may decide to introduce or not the fixed-term contracts and may decide the objectives or terms. It was mainly introduced for young associates (research assistant, and so on) in some (national) universities.

## 3. Other Reforms in the Higher Education System

### 3.1 New types of Graduate Universities

Since 1988, new types of graduate schools were founded. For example, Graduate University for Advanced Studies (*Sogo Kenkyu Daigakuin Daigaku*, 1988), a new independent graduate school, was designed to offer high-level graduate education for inter-universities research. Two Advanced Institutes of Science and Technology (*Hokuriku Sentan Kagaku Gijutu Daigakuin Daigaku*, Ishikawa Pref. 1990 and *Nara Sentan Kagaku Gijutu Daigakuin Daigaku*, Nara Pref. 1991) were founded to conduct basic advanced scientific and technological research.

### 3.2 Curricular Reform in Universities

As mentioned earlier, after the revision of the National Standards for the Establishment of Universities in 1991 (*Taiko-ka*), many universities decided to reform their curriculum and change the department system. It means that a lot of national universities abolished the department of general education and shift to specialized disciplines.

### 3.3 Self-Evaluation and Monitoring in Universities

With the initiation of self-monitoring and self-evaluation system, each university now reviews its education and research system. Some universities introduced not only self-evaluation but peer-review and so on.

In order to further promote university reform, universities can improve its evaluation system with the assistance of external professionals. Universities now have to continuously review and evaluate the reform and publish their evaluation report.

The University Council recommended the followings outline for self-evaluation in universities and graduate schools.

*Table 3. Checklist of Items for Self-Monitoring and Self-Evaluation in Universities (Example)* as proposed by the University Council

| |
|---|
| **1. Educational Activities** |
| 1.1. Aims and purposes of education |
| 1.1.1. Establishment of the university or the department |
| 1.1.2. Review of the aims and purposes of the university or the department |
| 1.1.3. The future planning of the university or the department |
| 1.2. Educational activities |
| 1.2.1. Existing entrance system |
| 1.2.2. Student life |
| 1.2.3. Curriculum planning |
| 1.2.4. Teaching |
| 1.2.5. Improving the teaching methods |
| 1.2.6. Evaluation and credits |
| 1.2.7. Graduates' progress |
| **2. Other Areas** |
| 2.1. Faculty structure |
| 2.2. Facilities |
| 2.3. International activities |
| 2.4. Partnership with Community |
| 2.5. Management system |

*Table 4. Checklist of Items for Self-Monitoring and Self-Evaluation for Faculty Members and their Educational Activities (Example)* as proposed by the University Council

| |
|---|
| **1. Teaching** |
| 1.1 General information |
| 1.2 Contents and methods of teaching (syllabus) |
| 1.3 Evaluation |
| 1.4 Others (office hours, etc.) |
| **2. Contribution to Activities about Teaching or Management** (Making Entrance Examination, etc.) |
| **3. Activities other than Teaching** |
| **4. Teaching Foreign Students** |
| **5. Contribution to the Community(Extension Courses, etc)** |
| **6. Faculty Development** |

## 4. Further Development and Conclusion

On January 1997, the central government decided to make educational reform as one of the six major reforms and the *Monbusho* designed the "Program for Educational Reform". This program was revised in August of 1997 and April of 1998.

About higher education reform, this "Program" suggests that below.

(1) The exception to university entrant's age restriction: The restriction on

university entrant's age was made flexible for gifted students in the fields of mathematics and physics since April 1998.

(2) Transfer from special training colleges to universities: There is a discussion on the way special training college graduates can transfer to universities. Credit transfer system between special training colleges and the University of the Air will be promoted.

(3) Improvement of the mechanism to evaluate learning results outside of school: The Lifelong Learning Council is now discussing the improvement of evaluation system for approving various learning results.

(4) Improvement of curriculum of teacher training course: In order to make the teachers competent enough to the existing tasks and issues, it was decided to reform the teacher training course of universities and improve the curriculum in response to social needs.

(5) Improvement of entrance examination system of universities: In order to ease extreme competition of entrance examination (called the examination hell, *Shiken-Jigoku*), various criteria for evaluating applicants were introduced. For example, evaluation on voluntary activities, specialized skills other than academic performance, interview, and so on.

(6) Improvement on graduate schools and reorganization of undergraduate departments: From the perspective of recommendations by the University Council reports, the *Monbusho* is planning to take appropriate measures to reform graduate school systems.

(7) Introduction of selective fixed-term system to university faculty members: As mentioned earlier, the Law concerning the fixed-term contract of faculty members in universities, which introduces selective fixed-term system to university faculty members, is now in effect and some universities have this contract.

(8) Utilization of multimedia resources in higher education: The University Council proposed the establishment of distance learning system in graduate school level, in response to the growing social expectation not only continuing on vocational education but also lifelong learning.

(9) Enhancement of lifelong learning function in higher educational institutions: *Monbusho* will encourage higher educational institutions to accept mature students and will promote refresher education for adult in response to changes in the industrial structure.

(10) Improvement of administration of university organization: From the perspective of recommendations by the University Council reports, *Monbusho* improves the administration of university organization by reinforcing president's leadership.

It seems that these reforms will let the function of universities and other higher education institutions to change fundamentally and their activities will change in respond to the coming lifelong learning society. As a result, all institutions must

participate on all kind of competition, from academic competition to getting new students, in market-oriented society. All institutions in Japanese higher education system face the crisis of existence and can not avoid to reform themselves.

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## Lao PDR: Phob Phannolath

I would like to avail myself of this opportunity to make an introduction on the policy and development of education in the Lao PDR before the end of century. My introduction is intended to enhance the mutual understanding, friendship and co-operation among countries of the sub-region.

The decision by the government of Lao PDR to encourage a market of oriented economy, the alimentation of which was begun in 1986, has already brought substantial improvement in the country's economic performance. While the economy and reforms are progressing, social sector activities are trying to keep pace. The government is undertaking the human resource development to create a workforce with capabilities to meet national development needs. This includes upgrading the educational and training systems, improving health care and maintaining cultural development.

The constitution of the Lao PDR promulgated in August 1991 recognised the right of all citizens to education, and instituted the principle of compulsory primary education. It authorises the operation of private schools within the context of national education programs and anticipates the development of education at all levels, with particular attention to ethnic minority areas. The government has reaffirmed the general objectives of its " Educational Sector Strategy to year 2000," which also aims to stimulate the development of pre-school education, to develop a technical and intellectual base, to recognise secondary, vocational- technical and higher education as a function of available school places and the social- economic needs of the country, and to reduce illiteracy. Emphasis is placed on the improvement of the quality educational with a view to progressively upgrading Lao education to international standards, on the complementary of education within and outside the country, and the relevance of education to family, social and economic life.

To implement this policy, it will be necessary to increase the efficiency of educational management, improve the quality of education, and expand access to the improved system. Immediate priority is given to primary education. However, taking into account the needs for social and economic development, it is equally necessary to improve and develop secondary education, in a well-planned manner, especially the lower secondary cycle.

### Increasing the efficiency of Education management.

The government aims to restructure the administration and management of the system. Administrators at all levels will be trained to perform their new functions according to precise ministerial instructions with the long-term objectives of building sufficient capacity in analysis, planning and management of education policy.

### Improving the quality of education

This strategy consists of:

- reforming and updating new curricula, textbooks, teacher guides and other

corresponding instructional material;

- developing viable mechanisms for assuring the provision of appropriate educational facilities;

- improving the quality of teachers by standardising and strengthening pre service education in teacher training colleges, institutionalising in service training and establishing a pedagogical support system.

## Expanding access to improved system

The objective of the government is to universalise primary education and to revitalise secondary education. Every effort will be made to raise the share of females and ethnic group children enrolments. The governments will establish non-formal education programs directed to seven target groups. Literacy programs linked to skill training will be offered to illiterate adults and out of school youth.

1. Children estimated to have never attended school,

2. Children who have prematurely dropped out of school,

3. Children who have completed primary school but do not have access to secondary schooling,

4. The population between 15 and 40 years of age that are estimated to be illiterate,

5. Civil servants and cadres who have less than a lower secondary school degree,

6. Ethnic minorities who remain out of the mainstream of education and training because of their geographic and cultural isolation,

7. Women, particularly those in rural areas, who are insufficiently educated concerning family health and safe mother hood.

To address the education and training needs of these groups, and to implement a coherent non-formal education policy and strategies, concerned institutions and staff will be strengthened, and collaboration with non-governmental organisations will be sought.

All these non -formal education programs will aim to improve living and working conditions of the participants in their natural and cultural environments, and to develop activities oriented towards self-sufficiency and employment, in order that they can contribute to, and benefit from, the social and economic development of the nation.

## Vocational training and post-secondary education

Beyond the immediate priorities in basic education, the government recognises the importance of vocational technical and higher education to provide the middle and higher level technical skills required for enhanced productivity and competitiveness.

Conceptual and feasibility studies are being undertaken to serve as the basis for establishing plans, programs and development project as a function of the labour market needs in the service of the socio-economic development of the country.

To improve the efficiency of vocational training and post-secondary education, the government also aims to reform vocational-technical and higher education. Conceptual and feasibility studies are being undertaken to serve as the basis for establishing plans, programs and development project as a function of the labour market needs in the service of the socio-economic development of the country.

The human resources required are of varying levels of skill. A post secondary education system is needed which provides exit points at the required levels but also the possibility for students to move up from one level to another. The highest level of training needs to provide adequate numbers of professional personnel in such areas as medicine, education and technology, together with managers in the public service and private enterprise.

Following the assessment of the existing management for the post-secondary education and training sector and referring to the keys issues such as capacity, quality, efficiency, effectiveness, equity and the policy context, the government is now, considering a three stages strategy for the consolidation and rationalisation of the post secondary education.

The three stages can be described as definable but not distinct, working units that should be conducted in paralleled, not in serial fashion. Furthermore, these developmental stages should be through of as an integrated whole. They only receive different amounts of human and capital resources at slightly different time periods based on their respective objectives.

Stage One: The development of the National University including the amalgamation of selected higher technical colleges and the strengthening of the University's Dong Dok Campus under one administration. At the outset of stage one there will be five permanent campuses: Agriculture, Dong Dok for science, humanities and social science, Education, Economics and management, Forestry, Health Science and National Polytechnic Institute.

Stage Two: The final development of The National University including the full integration of all designated higher technical colleges into the University's academic and administrative structure.

Stage Three: The development of the regional comprehensive college system including the amalgamation of designated higher technical colleges and technical colleges into five regional post-secondary education and training centres throughout the Lao PDR.

While the implementation of teacher Education and general education policy was begun in 1993, it is expected that post-secondary education policy will be implemented from 1995 to the year 2000.

## The strategy to Develop the Post secondary Education Sub sector

### Framework of the Strategy

In order to address the issues of human resource development in a comprehensive manner, the government established a high-level Steering committee on Human Resource Development in 1994. The system's response to this policy thrust is the consolidation and rationalisation of institutions, through which each institution improves co-ordination of programs and promotes sharing of material and human resources to produce and reproduce well-trained human resources efficiently. Consolidation and rationalisation is expected to bring about improved management and greater systemic efficiency, as well as to formulate a net work of technical competence to support each other. The middle-level technical and vocational institutions and lower levels of education also need to gain necessary technical back-up to correct their weaknesses.

Presently, there are three groups of post secondary institution in the country: the first includes three higher technical institutes and a "university" that offer programs to a bachelor's degree level; the second includes six higher technical institutes that offer advanced diplomas and are expected to offer degree programs; the third group of 27 institutions are technical in nature and offers certificate programs of one to three years of duration. The first two groups combined enrol approximately 5,000 students and the third group enrols a total of 6,500 students. In the plan of the Government, the degree granting post secondary institutions and " universities" are to be merged and reorganised into faculties in a multi-campus national university, the National University of Laos (NUOL), providing economies of scale and an efficient support framework. Other post secondary institutions offering shorter programs are to be merged into regional colleges. The process of consolidation is envisaged to get carried out in an orderly and gradual manner lasting about eight years.

### The National University of Lao (NUOL)

The rationalisation of post secondary education will therefore be carried out through the establishment of NUOL and regional colleges. NUOL will be an autonomous statutory body and it will be governed by its own University Council ( the Council). Its activities will be co-ordinated and facilitated by MOE. In the process of NUOL development, MOE will provide necessary support in its administrative and managerial matters, but as NUOL gains its full capacity in administering its own affairs under the direction of its Council, MOE will gradually delegate and transfer the authority to NUOL to manage its own institutional affairs. MOE's role will then be changed from that of a direct administrator to that of a co-ordination and supervisory body. The Degree establishing NUOL and designating MOE to be responsible for major administrative matters initially needs to be reviewed along such a change.

Curricula in NUOL will combine a two-year program of foundation studies followed by specialised studies of 3 to 5 years according to faculty. The regional colleges will be developed as skill oriented education and training institutions focused on regional requirements. There will be some transferability of course credits between faculties and between NUOL and the regional colleges.

According to the Decree, NUOL will comprise eight faculties, viz.: of education; humanities; science; economics and management; political science and law; engineering (including architecture); agriculture and forestry (including irrigation); and medical sciences. They will be supported by a school of foundation studies, which will provide first year basic general studies followed by pre-professional courses in the second year.

In the process of establishing NUOL, important policies and institutional arrangements will be developed including the legal and administrative framework for the functioning of the university, improved admission systems and mechanisms, and the introduction of a greater cost recovery mechanism and other resource mobilisation measures.

**The process to Develop NUOL**

The process of developing the National University of Laos (NUOL) is to start with the promulgation of a decree (the decree) by the Minister to establish NUOL by transferring 10 educational institutions (including one which is yet to be operational) into the structure of NUOL.

Three groups of activities are being envisaged to develop NUOL and its network with regional colleges. The first is the amalgamation of the four post secondary institutions to form the nucleus for NUOL with its headquarters at Dong Dok. The second is the consolidation of NUOL by the progressive, step by step integration of the other six partner campuses with consequential development of the full university faculty structure. The third is the development of regional colleges and NUOL's outreach program through which NUOL relates to the provinces through regional colleges. These three groups of activities are viewed as overlapping, rather than mutually exclusive, stages of the rationalisation and consolidation of the post secondary education system in Lao PDR.

## Higher Education in the LAO P.D.R

**National Strategy for the 21st Century**

Along with economic progress and new development challenges. The Lao Government's development objectives have progressed in response to social and economic needs. The government emphasises maintaining macroeconomics stability while aiming concerted efforts in integrated rural development. Among the Government's development plan for 1994-1995, which was approved by the National Assemble in September 1994, human resource development was considered a priority area to create a workforce with the capabilities to meet national development needs. This includes upgrading the education system, improving health care and maintaining culture development.

In order to address the issues of human resource development in a comprehensive manner, the Government established a high-level Steering Committee on Human Resource Development in 1994. The system's response to this policy thrust is the consolidation and rationalisation of institutions, through which each institution improves co-ordination of programs and promotes sharing of material and human resources to produce and reproduce well-trained human resources efficiently.

Consolidation and rationalisation is expected to bring about improved management and greater systemic efficiency, as well as to formulate as network of technical competence to support each other. The middle-level technical and vocational institutions and lower levels of education also need to gain necessary technical back-up to correct their weaknesses.

The mission of post-secondary education has to be seen in the context of the Government's New Economic Mechanism. This policy requires the involvement of as many people as possible in the production of goods and services and thereby the widest possible diffusion of income thus created. For this, a policy of training is needed which provides over and above basic education, the competencies required by the labour market. Thus the mission of vocational training and post-secondary education is to provide the human resources on which its economic policy depends.

The human resources required are of varying levels of skill. A post-secondary education system is needed which provides exit points at the required levels but also the possibility for students to move up from one level to another. The highest level of training needs to provide adequate numbers of professional personnel in such areas as medicine, education and technology, together with managers in the public services and private enterprise.

With the change to a market economy there is a risk that pockets of unemployment may be produced. The system needs to equip individuals with the skills to respond to opportunities of employment as these arise, both in the capital and in the provinces. Appropriate training facilities should strengthen the skill base in the provincial centres.

The demands of the market economy need to be balanced by the basic social needs of the community such as health. The system needs to respond to these by providing paraprofessionals to serve in the less developed rural areas for the improvement of social conditions and to limit the tendency to urban drift.

Following the assessment of the existing management of the post-secondary education and training sector and referring to the keys issues – such as capacity, quality, efficiency, effectiveness, equity and the policy context, the government is now, formulating a 2 stages strategy for the consolidation and rationalisation of the post secondary education for the 21st Century.

The 2 stages can be described as definable but not distinct, working units that should be through of as an integrated whole. They only receive different amounts of human and capital resources at slightly different time periods based on their respective objectives.

Stage one: The development of the National University by the amalgamation of selected higher technical colleges and the strengthening of the University's Dong Dok Campus under one administration.

At the outset of stage one there will be 4 permanent campuses:

- Agriculture and Forestry.
- Science, Humanities and social science, Education, Economics and Management.

- Health Sciences.
- Engineering.

Stage two: The development of the regional comprehensive college system including the amalgamation of designated higher technical colleges and technical colleges into five regional post-secondary education and training centres throughout the Lao PDR.

Against this background a key medium/term objective is to establish a unified national system of post-secondary education, with a co-ordinating mechanism for articulation of the various levels and designation of national standards for award of qualifications.

A long term objective would be to raise the quality of post-secondary education through improvements in curriculum relevance, competence of teachers, management for teaching institutions and physical facilities.

A second long term objective would be that of modifying the selection process to students to improve the quality of those admitted for training and to provide more equitable access for those in rural areas.

The major strategic planning and programming requirements can be summarised under 6 main headings:

1. Co-ordination of post-secondary education into a coherent, cost effective national system.
2. Autonomy of the University and Delegation of managerial Functions.
3. Improvement in the quality of the system and in its relevance to the labour market.
4. Modification of the student select process to increase equitable access and a more competent student body.
5. Introducing greater cost recovery and improving the scholarship scheme and probably introducing a student loan scheme to assist needy students,
6. Research Development

Research activities are not noticeable in the institutions at present. There is no promotional research administration to encourage staff on research activities, to seek outside funds, organise institutional exchanges of information, canvass available topics and funds and seek support for university-based research activities. Research is an important university function which is specifically mentioned in the Decree establishing the National University and this expertise must be generated in the University.

# Malaysia: Asarudin Hj Ashari

## 1.0 Introduction

In the early 1990s the world at large undergoes such momentous and enormous economical and technological advancements that effects widespread and fundamental changes in our daily life. Since than, the role of education in human society is constantly increasing and changing. The current era of development will greatly influence and effect education system, worldwide. It is required now to create an education system that can contribute towards the existence of a sophisticated, knowledgeable and versatile workforce that is capable of keeping up with and adapting to rapid technological advancements. Institutions of higher (IHL) therefore have to adopt and adapt a new dynamic role to meet the demands of these rapid changes.

## 2.0 Background of Education System in Malaysia

Education is the key factor for Malaysia to achieve nation's Vision 2020. The objective of Vision 2020 is to inspire the nation to become a developed country by the year 2020. Malaysia intends to transform its education system, in line with and in support of the nation's drive to fulfil the Vision, which calls for sustained, productivity-driven growth, which will be achievable only with a technologically literate, critically thinking work force prepared to participate fully in the global economy of the 21st century. At the same time, Malaysia's National Philosophy of Education calls for "developing the potential of individuals who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced and harmonious". The catalyst for this massive transformation will be technology-support education system, which will assist to achieve the National Philosophy of Education, while fostering the development of a work force prepared to meet the challenges of the next century.

The introduction of the Education Act 1996 is the major educational reform undertaken to provide education of high standard to all communities in the country.

## 3.0 Malaysia's Changing Needs and Their Effects to Institutions of Higher Learning.

Generally, higher education is undertaken by way of formal education and distance learning. The higher education academic programs are mainly provided by the government's public institutions of higher learning and are directed at generating manpower leading to award of certificate, diploma degree and professional qualifications. Recently, the government encourages the private sector to set up educational institutions to supplement the government's effort to further generate a larger pool of semi-professional and professional workforce

IHL in Malaysia are facing enormous challenges at the present time. The education system that prepares students for the market workplace is no longer adequate. What is required, a system that can contribute towards the existence of a sophisticated, knowledgeable and versatile workforce that is capable of not only keeping up with and

adapting to rapid technological advancements to acquire skills and knowledge, but also need to be instilled with correct work attitudes and ethics. A disciplined, efficient and skillful workforce will no doubt lead to increase productivity and sustainable in the long term to acquire skills and knowledge.

### 3.1 Change in the Malaysian Economy

The initially agriculture-based economy has now shifted to an industrial-oriented one that focuses on manufacturing and services. By the year 2000, manufacturing exports are projected to account for 81% of total exports while the share of agricultural exports will decline to 6% (Second Outline Perspective Plan 1991-2000 {OPP2}). This shift requires the training and retraining of workforce with the right knowledge base, right through the education system. Participation from the IHL in providing the right workforce to meet Malaysia's changing economy is crucial.

### 3.2 The "Globalization" of Malaysia

The shift of focus to an industrial-oriented economy requires that Malaysia to sharpen its competitive edge to compete in the world economy. This globalization of the Malaysian economy runs parallel to an increasing international role for Malaysia as an active and responsible partner in international affairs. The need to enhance effectively, productively and competitiveness has become more urgent and places additional demand on IHL to play a more dynamic role in nation building.

### 3.3 Emphasis on Science and Technology

External and internal changes have inevitably led to a change in Malaysia's strategy in national development. While maintaining the emphasis on building a nation with strong ethical values, the thrust now is on creating a science and technology-based industrial sector to spearhead the growth of economy. This change off emphasis has resulted in a corresponding change in manpower needs. As an illustration, it has been estimated that based on 1990 statistics, Malaysia will require additional 30,100 engineers (electrical and electronic, civil, and chemical) and 122,900 engineering assistance by the year 2000. The capacity of existing IHL to meet the increase in these fields is expected to be only 21,000 for engineers and 84,070 for engineering assistance (The Second Outline Perspective Plan {OPP2} 1991-2000).

Once again, IHL in Malaysia play a crucial role not only in providing training to meet manpower needs but also in promoting a science and technology culture and in spearheading Research and Development in the process of creating a modern industrial economy.

### 3.4 Role of Private Sector

Realizing the importance of the private sector as a vital engine of national growth, there has been a marked increase in private participation in the Malaysian economy. Under the concept of Malaysia Incorporated, the government and the private sector work hand-in-hand in promoting national growth. Such private sector involvement has led to an increase in industry-university linkages, with both parties collaborating among

themselves and with the government as nation building.

### 3.5 Dynamic Management of Institutions of Higher Learning

In complement with the development of IHL, it is appropriate for IHL to improve the management procedures. Restructuring in organizational and administrative structures at most of the public IHL are implemented. New centers such as Quality Council, Human Resource Development Centers, Centers for Academic Excellence etc are developed.

## 4.0 The Changing Role of IHL in Malaysia

The technological advancements have decidedly impacted on South East Asian shores and develop at an exponential rate; the ability to cope with the rapidly changing phenomena is essential. A major concern of the IHL in Malaysia is to create the development of an effective quality and change management system that maximizes use of resources while meeting the challenges of rapid change at all levels. The change in role is especially pertinent in two areas:

### 4.1 Adoption of Policies for the 21st Century in Institutions of Higher Learning at the System and Institutional Levels in Meeting Challenges Ahead

The rapid change of technologies and the determination of achieving Vision 2020, despite regional economic slow-down, have led to increase demand for higher education. Adoption of policies and strategies for the IHL are important and necessary.

#### A) The Need to Democratize Opportunities for Institutions of Higher Learning

Higher education is no longer an elitist commodity and has become an increasing important determiner of social mobility. The student's enrollment for the public institutions of higher learning increased twofold as shown from the table below:

Table 1: Students Enrollment for Public and Private Institutions of Higher Learning 1997-98 & 1998-99 Sessions

| Institutions | 1997-98 Session | 1998-1999 Session | Comments |
|---|---|---|---|
| Public Institutions of Higher Learning | 55,000 students | 87,664 Students | Increased of 59.39% |
| Private Institutions of Higher Learning | 84,000 Students | > 100,000 Students (Apr.) | Increased of > 20% |

As Malaysian progresses towards being a developed nation, the concern now is more opportunities for higher education. By the year 2020, working on the estimate that 30% of Malaysian within the age cohort of 19-24 are enrolled in universities, the total estimated demand for tertiary education will be about 667,000 (Ishak, 1994). Assuming an intake of 20,000 students per public IHL, Malaysia will require an additional 24 public IHL to its present nine in the year 2020. The number will be more if we take into

account demands for tertiary education from those above the age of 24. The concern of public IHL now in fact is not merely to cater for students who have just completed their secondary education, but also for others outside the school system who wish to gain tertiary education, such as working adults in the public and private sectors, experienced technicians without a university degree and even housewives. Public IHL have therefore have to open up access to educational opportunities and look for ways of catering to the educational demands of sophisticated society. Policies and strategies on establishing private institutions of higher learning must be developed in parallel to the needs of manpower and development.

### B) The Need for IHL to Be More Industry-Oriented

IHL can no longer take on an ivory-tower role of promoting learning for the sake of learning. They need to be actively involved in human resource development as well as nation building and play the role of partners of growth together with the government and private sector. In addition to preparing graduates for the workplace, IHL will also have to be involved in the training and retraining of the labor force already in workplace. They have to be more market-driven in both their curriculum and research and the need to collaborate with the industry has therefore become inevitable. This need to be more industry-oriented clearly spelt out in the OPP2:

> ...Effective interaction among the public sector, industry and academia will be fostered. The commercialization of industrial research output to stimulate indigenous market-driven and user-oriented research will be produced...

Institutions involved with R & D activities must work closely to improve innovativeness and to ensure that the knowledge and skills developed, will be industry-related.

### C) The Need to Change in Response to Technological Development of Information Age

Malaysia needs to make the critical transition from an industrial economy to a leader in the Information Age. In order to make this vision a reality, Malaysian need to make a fundamental shift towards a more technological literate, thinking work force, able to perform in a global work environment and use the tools available in the information Age. To make this shift, the education system must undergo a radical change transformation. The education culture must be transformed from one that is memory-based to one that is informed, thinking, creative and caring through leading-edge technology. The starting point should be from the elementary level through the IHL. It is against this background that the Smart School has been made one of the flagship applications in the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC). By the year 2010, all the approximately ten thousand Malaysian schools will be 'Smart Schools'. Smart school will be lead to full democratization of education. Policies to this quantum leap planing and application have to be spell-out clearly.

## 4.2 Strategies in Meeting the Changing Role of IHL

The strategies adopted by the IHL should be in line with the policies suggested such as:

## A) The Need to Democratize Opportunities for Higher Education

The following are steps being taken or could be taken to increase opportunities for access to higher education for the masses.

*i. Continue Education and Distance Learning*

Realizing that the capacity of existing facilities are finite, IHL are seriously looking into the possibility of opening up access to higher education through Continue Education and Distance Learning. More vanues are opened by the private and public IHL.

*ii. Part-Time Courses at IHL*

To maximize the potential use of facilities at IHL and meet the needs of many working adults who can't take extended time off from the work, many IHL are offering part-time courses leading to a degree. Private IHL are offering more of certificate and diploma programs whereas the public IHL is more to degree and post graduate programs.

*iii. Twinning and Franchise*

The private higher education institutions (PHEI), governed by the Private Higher Education Institution Act, 1996, have long been established and are also playing a major role in generating a trained labor force, particularly at the certificate and diploma levels. Some of the established institutions are offering various types of inter-institutional arrangements leading to a Bachelor's degree. There are currently about 300 approved PHEIs.

The Government encourages the private sector to set up educational institutions to supplement the Government's effort to further generate a larger pool of semi-professional and professional workforce with degree, diploma and certificate qualification. Public corporations have been invited to set up institutions of higher learning. There are also proposals by private sector to set up Multimedia University in partnership with foreign universities. Generally, the PHEI will develop a twinning program with foreign universities and franchise programs with domestic universities.

*iv. Open University*

The concept of an "Open University" in Malaysia was suggested in the Sixth Malaysia Plan. If the university materializes, it will open up exciting possibilities in higher education in term of opportunities for studies, flexibility of time and innovations in presentation and dissemination of knowledge.

*v. Increase Intake Into Existing IHL*

As stated earlier, the existing universities have already been directed to increase their intake of students to 20,000 each by the year 2000. By the year 2020, there could be a further increase but such increase have to be taken against the practical realities of the limited resources available in IHL.

*vi. Reexamining Selection Criteria and Entry Requirement into IHL*

IHL have been traditionally been regarded as the center from the "brightest" or "cream" of an existing batch of students selected through performance in some public examinations. If the democratization of education and the need to train or retrain a versatile workforce become priorities in the future agenda of IHL, the selection criteria and entry requirements of IHL should be reexamined to enable a wider spectrum of society to benefit from higher education. In this respect, the various local universities have agreed to open up a "second channel" to cater for those with the relevant working experience to study for degree courses in field of engineering and applied science. Through this second channel, the universities will set aside 5-10% of their admission quota for candidates with a minimum qualification of the "Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia" (equivalent to the GCE "O" level) but with the working experience in the relevant field. Such candidates do not require the usual "Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan" certificate (equivalent to GCE "A: level) for entry into tertiary institutions.

*vii. Scholarship or Academic Funding*

Since the corporatisation of public institutions of higher learning, the government has reduced the financial assistance to public IHL by 46% across the board. The students have to settle the registration fees to about RM 1,600 per semester, which was then fully sponsored by the government. The National Higher Education Fund Corporation (NHEFC) was created to assist student funding to IHL. For the 1997/98 academic session, loan was approved to 9,091 out off 14,427 who applied. An allocation of RM 100 million (1997) and RM 203.5 million (1998) were granted. An annual loan of RM 6,500 was given to students of pubic IHL and RM 12,000 to students of PHEI for their academic financial support.

**B) The Need for IHL to be More Industry-Oriented**

University-industry linkage programs have been implemented to ensure closer collaboration between the two as active partners of nation building. Firstly, consultation or innovation centers have been set up in most universities to spearhead efforts in making available university expertise to industry. Research and development work, in the form of "contract research" in which private corporations engage the services of academic staff from IHL to develop industry-related products in on the increase

In the field of training at undergraduate and postgraduate level, university-industry collaboration usually takes the form of:

1. Hands-on education and
2. Teaching companies.

The stakeholders in the programs-the students and the staff from the universities and firms-are involved in inter-dependent projects of mutual benefits. In a nutshell, the students work on industry-required projects/research with the feedback on the practical requirements of the market and the practicality of the approach from the firm supervisors. The university staff, on the other hand, provides the necessary expertise and guidance to meet the requirements of the market-driven firm. In the process:

- ➔ Transfer of learning and skill between the two parties (universities and firms) takes place.

- ➔ Increased communication between the two parties results in closer collaboration for mutual benefits. The universities become more sensitive to market demands and the realities of the workplace, corresponding changes to their curriculum and approach while the firms become more aware of the available resources in their recruitment drive while the students are sometimes given the opportunity to remain in permanent employment with the firm after the attachment period is over.

- ➔ Universities get the massive funding that is available in industry for their R&D projects, the results of which will be utilized by the industry.

### C) The Need to Change in Response to Technological Development of Information Age

In response to the technological advancement of the information age, the changing process has to start form the primary and secondary levels then through to IHL. The smart school concept will lead to the full democratization of education. The key players in smart school are students as active learners; teachers as facilitators of learning and administrators as effective managers. Preparing students for the information age depends on an integrated strategy:

- ➔ Provide all-round development with provision for individual abilities, offering a broad curriculum for all, with electives, that is integrated, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary.

- ➔ Emphasize intellectual, emotional, spiritual and physical growth, concentrating on thinking, developing and applying values, and using correct language across the curriculum.

- ➔ Produce a technologically literate work force that can think critically, encouraging thought and creativity across the curriculum and applying technology effectively in teaching and learning.

- ➔ Democratize education, offering equal access to learning opportunities and accommodating differing learning abilities, styles and paces.

- ➔ Increase the participating of stakeholders, creating awareness of their roles and responsibilities and developing the skills they need for that.

- ➔ Restructuring Management System Emphasis on Quality Performance

### D. Restructuring Management System Emphasis on Quality Performance

The major move taken by public IHL is to implement corportization at the institutional level. The institutions will be more independent and autonomous, more freedom in academic and administrative decision-makings.

To improve administrative planning and procedures, Quality Council is established at most of the IHL to implement quality assurance at the organization. Management and executive information system are established to improve the networking in the organization.

Besides applying improvement to administrative and managerial performance, IHL are grappling with ways to best engage faculty members on this journey of learning various technologies; incorporating technologies into their courses; and assessing outcomes of the technologies and student learning. Centers for Academic Excellence are established, to support faculty member's development in all areas of scholarship, to enhancing teaching, foster community-university partnership, and develop approaches to assessment.

## 5.0 Issues to be addressed to Identify Trends of Common Interests

It is appropriate to conclude by highlighting some issues, which will need to be addressed in our noble effort at providing higher education in facing challenges in years to come:

**5.1** While attempting to open up access to higher education, national and regional IHL should ensure that the present high quality of education offered is not compromised over a concern for quantity.

**5.2** The "Look East Policy" needs to be reviewed to suit with Malaysia's current and future human resource needs. Diversified the study fields for Malaysia students continuing higher education in developed countries such as Japan to include information technology, services and post-graduate studies.

**5.3** Mass education approach should take into account of equity in terms of making provisions for the less privileged. The "less privileged" includes those who may be late developers, working adults, women with family commitments and those form poor families or the indigenous groups who may not have had a head start in education compared with others with better educated parent (Rusgal, 1995)

**5.4** Since the emphasis is on science, technology and information technology, the delivery system (method of teaching, evaluation, curriculum, instructional materials and multi-media) in primary and secondary schools for science, mathematics and technical subjects should be constantly upgraded to ensure a strong foundation at the IHL.

**5.5** Malaysia's skilled manpower policy which started in 1982 needs to be reviewed. Both Malaysia and Japan should look into Malaysia's human resource requirements in the next 15 years, so that graduate trained in Japan will be able to contribute significantly to the Country. The reviewed policy should be two-way program especially dealing with students exchange program. Twinning programs between higher learning institutions of both countries should be encouraged.

**5.6** The increasing student enrolment in IHL will require a rethinking of the whole business of university management such as the mode of delivery of knowledge, effective utilization of limited resources such as laboratories, the establishment of self-access learning centers, etc. The conventional teacher-fronted approach to education

will have to be replaced and IHL will have to explore new possibilities in the form of distance education, self-access learning packages, work-embedded training and a host of innovative approaches to the management of teaching and learning.

**5.7** IHL will require more academic staffs to cater for the growing student population. It should be remembered that although the academic staff is specialists in their subject area, most are not educationists by training. Training should therefore be given to upgrade the teaching capabilities of these specialists.

**5.8** Transforming traditional schools into Smart Schools represents a major undertaking. It will require a significant commitment of resources, but Malaysia will benefit from the change for many years to come. Systematic approach to research and planing should be emphasis and accompanying the undertaking.

## 6.0 Conclusion

This paper has examined the role of IHL in meeting the challenges of the future. It addresses in particular the need to democratize higher education to meet the increasing demand and the need for IHL to shed its ivory-tower image to adopt a more industry-oriented one. While the emphasis has been on creating a science and technology-oriented society to meet the challenges of Vision 2020, it should be reintegrated that the other challenges of the Vision, such as creation of moral, ethical and caring society through higher education are equally important. In fact, a moral, ethical, and caring society is the foundation upon which a dynamic and scientific society is based.

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# New Zealand: Lindsay Taiaroa

## 1 Introduction

During the past decade New Zealand embarked upon a radical reform of higher education. The reform agenda was developed as part of wider economic and fiscal changes designed to open up a highly protected and regulated economy to international competition. A recent survey placed the New Zealand economy 13th in terms of its openness to international competition.

The transformation of the economy affected both the private sector and the public sector. As most higher education is undertaken by public institutions the public sector reforms had a profound impact on the way higher education was restructured, funded and managed.

## 2 The major features of the reforms were:

(i) a new Ministry of Education with direct responsibility for all policy and funding in tertiary education. Previously the universities had been administered separately through a buffer body called the University Grants Committee;

(ii) devolution of operational and management decisions to all tertiary institutions not just universities. This was particularly important for the other main types of tertiary institutions, polytechnics and colleges of education;

(iii) an emphasis on the efficient use of and accountability for resource utilisation;

(iv) bulk funding of all institutions by government but increased private contributions through higher tuition fees set by the institutions themselves;

(v) a co-ordinated national qualifications system;

(vi) increased participation of school leavers and others in tertiary education

## 3 The role of the Ministry of Education

New Zealand is a parliamentary democracy where the political party or parties with a majority in the legislature form the government and the Executive, called the Cabinet. The Ministers who make up the Cabinet include a Minister of Education. Although the Cabinet is ultimately responsible for decisions on education it is guided primarily by advice from the Ministry of Education to the Minister of Education. That advice is often contested by other Ministries with an interest in education particularly Treasury.

Before 1989 the Department of Education was characterised by a dirigiste, bureaucratic approach to Education. After the Education Act of 1990 the Ministry acted on the belief that the best results in tertiary education would flow from competition between autonomous institutions. The Ministry's role was to establish the regulatory framework, the so called level playing field, on which the competition would be played out. The

Ministry has a role as a "purchaser" of education services which may be from public or private providers and an "ownership" interest in the public institutions where the main concern is in the financial viability of the institutions.

## 4 Devolution

The university system of 7 public universities had enjoyed real autonomy on most academic and funding matters since 1960 when a system of quinquennial block grants on the UK model had been introduced. The major impact of the 1990 reform was to give the polytechnics (25 of them) and six colleges of education a similar system of governance and a funding system that was the same for all institutions. The Councils of all institutions were required to develop a Charter that set out their overall institutional mission and then, at the operational level, develop Statements of Objectives which set out their year-by-year forecasts of the students they thought they could enrol and their consequent bid for funding to the Ministry of Education. The representative Councils were responsible for appointment of the chief executive and setting the overall direction of the institution. In theory, the chief executive was responsible for the management of the institution. In practice the line between governance and management has been confused and older traditions of collegial decision-making, especially on academic matters, are alive and well.

It is fair to say though that Councils have been exercising their powers of appointment of chief executives where their performance has not measured up. As all chief executives are on term contracts this opportunity occurs at 5-yearly intervals. It is also true that the institutions have remodeled their internal management structures with a full-time senior management group replacing the older style of part-time senior academics assisted by an administrative staff headed by a Registrar. Today the highest paid personnel tend to be in this senior management group rather than the professoriate.

## 5 Efficiency and Accountability

Efficient use of resources has been necessary for all institutions. The main way that this has been achieved has been through the funding system that gives incentives for growth but has progressively lowered the per capita contribution by government. To cope with the increasing numbers of students most institutions have allowed the ratio of students to staff to rise. For example in universities the staff-student ratio in 1980 was 1:10. In 1997 1:19. Salaries have increased very little in real terms since 1990 and human resource policies have led to slower progression within salary scales and replacement of senior academics with staff of less experience. Note too that capital funding has been rolled into the operating grants and all capital development and maintenance has to be funded from operating surpluses.

In terms of accountability every institution has to report in detail to the Ministry of Education on its achievement each year with the funding it has been given. Any institution that does not reach its funded targets of enrolments is penalised in the following year. The institutions also make detailed annual reports on their financial performance and performance against other objectives to Parliament. These reports are publicly available and are required to be audited according to public sector accounting

requirements.

## 6 Funding

The funding system is by a formula. Between 1991 and 1998 the Government provided a capped amount of money and a number of student places that institutions could bid for on an annual basis. Success in the bidding depended primarily upon exceeding the previous year's funded enrolment. Another factor could be a particular Government priority area where it wanted to fund more places. This has happened over the past 2 years in teacher training to meet an immediate and projected shortfall in the number of school teachers.

The Government has just announced a change in the system for 1999 which will see the cap on places lifted but a financial cap will remain. The Government is hopeful that the extra funding it is providing will meet the likely demand. It has allowed for 4% growth whereas growth over the past year or two has been at 2%.

Tuition fees for a long time were very low in New Zealand but from the late 1980s a conviction grew that the private returns to higher education were considerable and that it was reasonable to ask the students and their families to pay a higher proportion of the cost. Although the policy is politically contentious the current thinking is that on average students should pay 25% of the cost of tuition. The actual fees are set each year by the Council of each institution. There is a wide variety of approaches to fee setting ranging from one fee from all students to a range of fees according to the discipline studied. International students cannot by law be subsidized from Education funds and must pay the full cost of tution.

A student loan system is available to meet the full-cost of tuition, incidental costs and living allowances. The loan is subject to interest and is repayable through the income-tax system once earnings reach the threshold of NZ$14,500. Interest begins when the loan is drawn and is calculated on a daily basis. The interest is compounded annually and added to the loan balance. For a minority of students from poorer families allowances to support living costs are available.

An interesting feature of the proposed new funding system is that from the year 2000 private training establishments will be able to compete for funding on an equal basis with the public institutions.

## 7 Quality Assurance and Qualifications

A major innovation in 1990 was the establishment of a new body, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) with the task of developing a National Qualifications Framework. The 8-level NQF is intended to be comprehensive, spanning general and vocational qualifications across the post compulsory sector, including the senior secondary school. It is based on 'outcomes' - statements about what the learners know and can do. Although the conceptual approach gained considerable support particularly from industry - related qualifications, tertiary educators, particularly university academics, had deep reservations about the extent to which the achievements of learners at the tertiary level could be encapsulated in outcome statements either at the level of

the whole qualification or at the level of the component parts such as a course or paper. At the moment it seems unlikely that a rigid specification of outcomes for each paper will be required for degree programmes. The support for the NQF and its development seem to be on the wane. The future of the NQF and the role of NZQA will be set out in a Government White Paper due in August. The most likely role for NZQA is as a quality assurance agency for the whole system.

The rapid expansion of the higher education system has been accompanied by concerns about the quality of the programmes being offered and the overall standard of learning attained by students. In a few cases student groups have successfully demanded refunds of tuition fees where programmes have not been delivered according to the initial outline provided to students. In general the public institutions have tried very hard to be responsive to the educational needs of students and their expressed concerns. For example it is difficult for university teachers to gain promotion without positive student assessments of their teaching ability. In universities a range of measures have been instituted to ensure the learning experience is of good quality. These include:

- individual assistance for students with learning difficulties, particular asistance to the disabled and those with English as a second language is available;
- peer-review of new degree programmes through the NZ Vice-Chancellors' Committee;
- institutional audit by the New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit;
- rigorous appointment procedures for new staff;
- promotion based on regular review of performance in teaching and research;
- use of voluntary serverance, early retirement and redundancy provisions in staff management;
- regular departmental reviews involving national and international subject experts.

## 8 Increased Participation

The undoubted major success of New Zealand's reforms over the past ten years has been a dramatic increase in the participation of young school leavers in tertiary education and wide spread acceptance of the philosophy of life-long education

Cumulative data indicates that the majority of the population will have enrolled in tertiary education before the age of 25 years, for most of them in a tertiary institution. Based on current levels of participation of 18 to 24 year olds, it is estimated that 69 per cent of the population would have attended a tertiary institution before the age of 25 years. Close to 90 per cent of the population participate in some form of part-compulsory education and training but most of this would not be degree-level education.

One of the paradoxes that an international educator observed in New Zealand higher education in the 1980s was that it had open access, low fees, generous student financial support and low participation. The explanation for this lay in the economy which was

characterised by low unemployment, low margins for skill, high taxation and an economy reliant on subsidised agricultural exports and protected local industries. With the radical changes in the New Zealand economy commencing in 1984 came widespread unemployment, a permanent loss of large numbers of low-skilled jobs and a premium for workers with skills and higher education. The result was a dramatic. In universities, for example between 1987 and 1997 enrolments increased from 65,000 to 106,000.

The problem for government in pursuing higher participation has been to meet the funding requirements of the institutions providing tertiary education in a period of very tight fiscal restraint. This has been achieved by giving priority to education spending, by placing a greater proportion of the cost of higher education on the students and their families and by severely means-testing living allowances for students. A government-backed student loans scheme was introduced to ensure that higher fees and means testing of allowances did not bar students from participating on financial grounds. The policy has succeeded but at the cost of a massive increase in student debt and students being forced into part-time jobs during term time to finance their education.

## 9 Current and future issues

### Institutional perspective

The future may be considered from an institutional, a government or a student perspective. There are two main considerations for institutions in the immediate future. The first is to safeguard and diversify their funding base. To do this they must protect their domestic enrolment base from competition and develop it as fast as they can. The new uncapped funding system will reward all initiatives immediately and in almost all cases the marginal cost of a new student will be less than the combined revenue from government subsidy and tuition fees. All tertiary institutions are striving to increase their enrolment of international students and the long-term prospects for this are good despite the current downturn caused by the economic situation in important source countries of Asia.

The New Zealand institutions have also taken a leaf out of the Americans' book and are paying much closer attention to cultivating the interest and loyalties of their graduates through alumni organisations Over time it is hoped that these ties will return additional sources of funding. Some new funds for scholarships have been established and there are a few large endowments of long standing.

The other main hope for diversification lies in corporate support. This takes a variety of forms including research contracts, sponsorship of chairs, scholarships and involvement in work experience and postgraduate training schemes. In universities the Ministry of Education provides about 50 per cent of total income with the balance coming from tution fees (21%) and other, Research etc. (29%).

The second main consideration for institutions will be to consider whether their future will be best secured by seeking to merge with other institutions. Already two of the colleges of education have been merged into universities and the four others are being wooed energetically by a range of suitors. The first merger between a university and a

polytechnic is planned. There is a belief that small institutions will not be financially viable in the more competitive period ahead. Whether this is true is not clear. Many of the private training competitors are relatively small in size.

### Government perspective

From the Government's perspective it wants to see high quality education and training attuned to the new needs of a rapidly changing economy. It is concerned that access should be equitable and provided as economically as possible. The current Government sees the best way to achieve this is through more competition particularly from the private sector. The more radical right wing would also encourage international providers into the New Zealand market and restructure all tertiary institutions as Crown-owned companies with Boards of Directors appointed by government. This model has been applied successfully in some parts of the public sector e.g. the postal service, but has failed in the Health sector which many see as more analogous to Education. A universal voucher would be the main way of funding students, placing purchasing power and choice directly in the hands of the students. The current funding system is not far removed from a voucher system. Public concern about the rising cost of higher education is likely to lead to a more cautious approach.

### Student perspective

Finally, from a student perspective the students are likely to be faced with higher fees, higher entry requirements into sought after courses, a greater choice of programmes and problems of deciding on the quality of the courses available and how well they will fit them for the job market. Increasingly virtualization should enable much more flexibility in the way qualifications are gained and, through the development of national and international accreditation agencies, a guarantee of quality and international portability. Although most will incur some debt in gaining their qualifications, if they have selected carefully and worked hard they are likely to be rewarded by well-paid employment and a more secure future than those without tertiary qualifications.

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# Philippines: Amelia A. Biglete

## Introduction

For many decades, the educational system in the Philippines was characterized by inefficiency, poor quality, and lack of access and equity. These can be traced to the low priority given by government coupled by underinvestment in education. Very little effort was exerted by the government to address the multifarious problems of education in the country. However, in 1989, almost nine years ago, the Congress of the Philippines created the Congressional Commission on Education (EDCOM) to review and assess the state of Philippine education. The study covered all levels of education in the public and private sectors and focused on vital areas of concern. Based on the findings of the EDCOM study, following are some of the major problems confronting higher education in the country:

1. College population is unusually large, bigger than most developed countries and comparable to that of the United States.
2. College enrolment is concentrated in few courses such as business and commerce, engineering, and teacher education. Few students enroll in science and mathematics and in post secondary technical vocational courses.
3. Quality of graduates in higher education is poor which can be attributed to: a) poor quality of teachers in colleges and universities; b) inadequate teaching and learning facilities in these institutions; and c) ill-structured curricular offerings.
4. Mismatch between industry needs and the academic training of students in colleges and universities is very evident.
5. Graduate education is underdeveloped, mostly concentrated on programs in teacher training and very limited in specialized fields of science, engineering and social sciences.
6. Research as a higher education function is being neglected due to lack of qualified staff and insufficient funding.

This paper is an attempt to elucidate the major reforms instituted to cure the ills of higher education in the country as amplified by EDCOM and other studies.

## Structural Reform in the Bureaucracy

The Philippine education system includes formal and non-forrnal education. The formal education consists of three levels, namely , elementary, secondary and tertiary or higher education. Previously, the only agency of government responsible to the whole educational system was the Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS). The bureaucracy then was too big and so priority was on basic education, higher education was relegated at the background.

In order to put proper attention to the development and improvement of higher education, one of the recommendations of EDCOM was the restructuring of the huge education bureaucracy. In 1994, two laws were enacted: 1) Republic Act No. 7722

creating the Commission on Higher Education (CHED); and 2) Republic Act No. 7796 creating the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA).

As a result of this trifocalization of education, the DECS now concentrates only in the administration, supervision and regulation of basic education (elementary and secondary education). TESDA, an agency attached to the Department of Labor, is the one which oversees the post-secondary technical and vocational education including skills orientation, training and development of out-of-school youth and unemployed community adults. On the other hand, the system governance and policy guidance over all public and private higher education institutions as well as degree-granting programs in all post-secondary educational institutions rest on CHED, a department-level agency, independent from and co-equal with DECS.

## Structure of the Higher Education System

Higher education system in the Philippines is a very complex one. As of 1998, the country has a total of 1,282 higher education institutions, 252 (or 9.7%) are public and 1,030 (or 80.3%) are private. Over two million students are currently enrolled, about 76 percent are in private institutions.

There are different types of higher education institutions in the country: 98 state colleges and universities (SUCs), 105 CHED-supervised institutions, 35 local universities and colleges, 14 other government schools, and 1,030 private institutions.

The SUCs are institutions funded by the national government, they have their own charters and thus autonomous from CHED. CHED-supervised institutions are non-chartered colleges, directly under the supervision of CHED and whose annual budget allocation is integrated in the government budget appropriation for CHED. Local universities and colleges previously called the community colleges are those operated, supported and maintained by local government units. In addition, there are other government schools offering bachelor's degrees and/or graduate degrees and advanced training such as military and police academies which are supervised and regulated by the Department of National Defense and Philippine National Police. The private institutions on the other hand are those which are owned and administered by private individuals, groups or corporations.

It is worth noting that one pressing problem of CHED is the continuous proliferation of substandard higher education institutions particularly the conversion of overgrown high schools into state colleges as well as conversion of state colleges into universities. At present, CHED has no control on this because it is Congress which has the power to legislate the creation or conversion of schools.

## Establishment of Higher Education Development Fund

Another major reform instituted to improve higher education in the country is the establishment of Higher Education Development Fund (HEDF). The passage of Republic Act 7722 in 1994 creating CHED paved the way for the implementation of more focused and effective strategies to respond to the major concerns on higher education pointed out by EDCOM. It can be noted that the task of CHED now is to

ensure that a good policy environment is in place to enhance and sustain the growth and development of the higher education sector and eventually make it comparable with other systems in the world. However, one constraint to operationalize this task is the huge financial requirement. To address this problem, the Higher Education Development Fund (HEDF) was established by virtue of Republic Act 7722. Such fund which is being administered by CHED is primarily intended for the strengthening of higher education in the country, thus ensuring that higher education responds to the present and emerging needs of the various sectors.

## The Higher Education Modernization Act of 1997

On July 22, 1997, a landmark legislation was made by Congress enacting into law Republic Act 8292 otherwise known as the "Higher Education Modernization Act of 1997." This Act provides for the uniform composition and powers of the Governing Boards, the manner of appointment and term of office of the president of chartered state universities and colleges (SUCs), and for other purposes. The specific objectives of this Act are the following: a) to achieve a more coordinated and integrated system of higher education; b) to make the SUCs more effective in the formulation and implementation of policies on higher education; c) to provide for more relevant direction in their governance; and d) to ensure the enjoyment of academic freedom.

By virtue of Republic Act 8292, the governing boards of all SUCs which were previously chaired by the DECS Secretary are now chaired by the Chairman of CHED. Although the SUCs are autonomous by virtue of their respective charters, this in effect put all SUCs under the supervision of CHED. This enables the CHED to exert influence on the SUCs in terms of the directions of their academic programs, in the improvement of the quality of their program offerings, and in their internal operations.

## Curricular Reforms

The SUCs have the autonomy to open curricula and institutional programs, and award their own degrees. However, by virtue of Republic Act 8292, the SUCs now are indirectly under the supervision of CHED.

The private institutions on the other hand are deregulated if their programs are Level III accredited and hence can initiate curricular reforms without the need for CHED's approval. Otherwise, they have to apply for permit from CHED to open a course, and they have to apply for recognition of their programs in order to be allowed to graduate their students.

Higher education institutions can improve the quality of their program offerings through voluntary accreditation where they have to undergo self evaluation and peer evaluation. Institutions whose programs are accredited are given incentives and priority funding assistance and greater independence in curriculum development and setting tuition fees. Institution which have already attained Level III accredited status for arts, sciences and for three other professional courses are allowed to open and operate new courses in any field without prior approval from CHED provided they meet the minimum requirements set by CHED.

However, it can be noted that in line with the rationalization of higher education programs, a moratorium policy on the opening of new programs was issued by CHED to curb the proliferation of substandard programs. There is now an existing moratorium on health courses, maritime education, engineering and architecture, teacher education (except majors in mathematics, science and english), accountancy, commerce and business (except majors in finance and entrepreneurship), and customs administration programs.

With regard to graduate education, new policies and standards are enforced by CHED vertically articulated by discipline and based on strong undergraduate programs across all the higher education disciplines. Level III accreditation of undergraduate programs is a major requirement in granting permit to open new graduate programs except in cases when CHED believes that the opening of programs will contribute significantly to the development of high-level manpower in undersubscribed and critical disciplines.

## Budget Allocation for Public Higher Education

The budget allocation for public higher education, from the early 90s to what it is now, has steadily increased. The total budget for education amounting to 98 Billion pesos (78 Billion pesos for DECS and 20 Billion pesos for CHED and TESDA) is the highest among government departments, making up 19.5 percent of the country's total budget in 1998. This is a manifestation of the increasing effort of the government to give priority to education. Moreover, it can be observed that the salary of faculty in public higher education institutions has increased over the years. Comparatively, the salary now of faculty in public institutions is higher than many of the private institutions. Hence, many of the faculty members of the private institutions would like to transfer to the public institutions.

## Development Programs and Projects on Higher Education

Apart from all the regulatory measures, the CHED is endeavoring on various developmental programs to strengthen the higher education system in the country. Majority of the programs and projects are supported through the Higher Education Development Fund (HEDF). As embodied in a comprehensive document entitled "Long-Term Higher Education Development Plan (1996-2005)", the thrusts of CHED are anchored on four major goals of higher education, namely: 1) quality and excellence; 2) relevance and responsiveness; 3) access and equity; and 4) efficiency and effectiveness.

On improving quality of higher education, CHED is supporting the following major programs and projects:

a) Strengthening of public and private higher education institutions that demonstrate the highest level of standards in instruction, research and extension through the establishment of centers of excellence (COEs) and centers of development (CODs) in nine (9) clusters of disciplines, namely: 1) teacher education; 2) health-related professions; 3) science and mathematics; 4) agriculture education; 5) engineering and architecture; 6) humanities, social

sciences and communication; 7) maritime education; 8) information technology; and 9) business and management education. - The CHED is providing financial assistance to the COEs/CODs in the form of student scholarships, faculty and staff development, research grants, library and laboratory facilities upgrading and conduct of networking activities. The idea is to focus resources on few institutions offering quality higher education programs.

b) Improvement of maritime education and training in compliance with the Standards for Training Certification and Watchkeeping (STCW) 1995 to enable the Philippines to be included into the White List. - The Philippines is one of the major suppliers of seafarers in the world. However, if the Philippines wants to maintain this status, by August 1, 1998, it has to show to the International Maritime Organization (IMO) that it is complying to the requirements of STCW 95. Otherwise, Filipino seafarers will not get employment in the international fleet.

c) Upgrading of graduate education. - With the new policies and standards now in place, CHED is going to undertake massive evaluation of existing graduate program offerings to determine the extent of compliance to the standards and impose sanctions on substandard graduate programs.

d) Provision of financial assistance for the implementation of voluntary accreditation program. - This is one mechanism to encourage higher education institutions to continuously improve the quality of their programs. The number of accredited programs has increased from 282 in 1991 to 452 in 1997.

e) Continuous monitoring and evaluation by CHED of programs offered by higher education institutions. - This is a regular function of CHED to determine the extent of compliance of program offerings of the higher education institutions to existing minimum standards and impose appropriate sanctions on substandard program offerings.

f) Implementation of Mindanao Advanced Education Program. - To improve the quality of higher education in Mindanao, the five-year faculty development focuses on the production of a total of 199 Master of Science and 106 Doctor of Philosophy graduates in 11 critical disciplines.

On relevance and responsiveness, following are major programs and projects:

a) Strengthening industry-academe linkage by instituting post-college bridging programs. - This is initially being implemented in the field of information technology.

b) Internationalization of Philippine higher education by establishing international linkages/networks, consortia and twinning programs. - Currently, there are over 150 institutional linkages between Philippine higher education institutions and universities overseas.

c) Provision of grants for higher education research to improve research capacities of the higher education institutions. - Research grants are now available to the higher education institutions to enable their faculty to undertake research.

On enhancing access to higher education, CHED is pursuing the following:

a) Expansion of scholarship programs to poor but deserving Filipino students. - The number of scholarship slots has increased by 59 percent from 76,519 in 1991 to 121,371 in 1997.

b) Rationalization of CHED-supervised institutions. - These institutions are strategically located in rural communities which are the ones providing opportunities to the economically disadvantaged students.

c) Promotion and improvement of open universities and distance education programs. - These alternative modes of delivery of higher education services provide opportunities to those who wish to earn a degree but can not attend the formal schooling within the confines of classrooms.

d) Institutionalization of the Expanded Tertiary Education Equivalency and Accreditation Program (ETEEAP). - This is a comprehensive educational assessment program through which knowledge, skills, attitudes and values gained by individuals from relevant work experiences and high-level non-formal training as well as from informal experiences can be recognized, accredited and given equivalencies parallel to those obtained through formal institutions of higher learning.

On improving efficiency and effectiveness, the following are major policy developments:

a) In the case of state universities and colleges (SUCs), the Higher Modernization Act of 1997 provides the following: 1) fiscal autonomy - any income generated by the university or college from tuition fees and other charges as well as from the operation of auxiliary services and land grants can be retained by the university or college and maybe disbursed by the Board of Regents/Trustees for instruction, research, extension or other programs/projects; 2) SUCs can adopt and implement a socialized scheme of tuition fees for greater access to poor but deserving students; 3) SUCs are authorized to fix and adjust salaries of faculty members and administrative staff subject to the revised compensation and classification system; 4) SUCs can authorize an external management audit to institute academic and structural reforms based on audit results; 5) SUCs can enter into joint ventures with business and industry for profitable development and management of economic assets of the institutions; and 6) SUCs may absorb non-chartered tertiary institutions within their respective provinces in coordination with the CHED and the Department of Budget and Management.

b) In the case of private higher education institutions, they may increase tuition fees provided proper consultations are made and that out of the total proceeds from the increase in tuition fees, the following shall be adopted in the utilization: 70% for salary increase of faculty and staff; 20% for facilities upgrading; and 10% as return on investment for school owners.

## Concluding Remarks

The Commission on Higher Education in four years of its existence has been exerting all efforts to provide the needed policy environment and directions in higher education. Significant measures and interventions have been made to address the pressing

problems of higher education. However, it is worth noting that under the administration of the newly-elected President, His Excellency Joseph Ejercito Estrada, major reforms in higher education are again expected as the establishment of a multisectoral Presidential Commission on Educational Reform is being pushed now to craft a "budget-feasible" program that will address concerns needed to equip Filipinos with world-class education.

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# Sri Lanka: W. A. de Silva

## Introduction

The arrangements for higher education and research in Sri Lanka combine to form a rather fragmented system with the following major components.

1. The Universities and Institutes under the Ministry of Education and Higher Education.

2. Specialized teaching and training centres and research units established under a number of ministries and departments besides the Ministry of Education and Higher Education. These have now been brought under the Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission.

3. Professional institutions whose programmes are comparable to undergraduate programmes of universities and whose professional qualifications are recognized as being equivalent to a university first degree.

4. Private sector higher education institutions offering a few higher level technical and vocational programmes and specialist programmes provided by professional institutions. This section is not significant in size and is at present limited to two or three small units.

However, in a consideration of the numbers of students and teachers involved, the history of the institutions, their significance in national life and the political weight they carry, the university sector ranks the most important so that any discussion regarding higher education ultimately boils down to a discussion of the university sector.

Higher education reform in Sri Lanka, like general education reform has been marked by an absence of a consistent national planning framework and hence of an overall policy and strategy. Not many sets of reforms have outlasted the duration of one parliament, each government undoing all or most of the reforms introduced by its predecessor. In this context it is rather difficult to isolate any clear `trends' in higher education reform.

## Quantitative Development

Perhaps a major trend in higher education reform observed over the last few decades is the growth and expansion of the university sector. The basic problem which successive governments were called upon to solve was the scarcity of university places to match the rapidly expanding demand, surprisingly even in the face of a growing army of unemployed graduates. At independence in 1948 Sri Lanka had just one university established in 1942. However, this was soon to prove insufficient to accommodate all secondary school graduates who requested admission.

Beginning in the decade of the forties even before independence the secondary education sector was experiencing noteworthy growth and democratization. The

abolition of tuition fees KG through first degree, the establishment of state schools with efficient upper secondary and collegiate sections in those areas of the country that had not been blessed with schools provided by Christian missionary societies, the institution of a system of scholarships tenable from grade VI to university, the change of the medium of instruction from English to the mother tongue (Sinhala or Tamil), the state take-over of private schools and private training colleges, the introduction of a common curriculum, the appointment of more and better trained teachers, and the provision of free school textbooks, free school uniforms and free mid-day meals were some of the more important democratization measures introduced during the period from approximately 1945 to 1990. Each of those measures independently and/or in association with one another brought to school sections of the population that had hitherto been kept away, and/or kept children longer in school than before. These students completed their A- Levels and began to look for university places that were not there paving the way for a rapid quantitative expansion.

In the decade of the fifties two new universities were established to provide instruction in the native medium (Sinhala) and to register external candidates for degrees. The period from 1965 to 1990 saw the establishment of six new universities including an Open University and another restricted to religious and cultural studies.

During the period 1994 to date three new universities have been founded and one existing institution meant exclusively for the Buddhist clergy has been raised to university status. In 1994 when the present government came into power 8500 students were admitted to universities annually. This figure has now been raised to 12 500 and it is planned to further raise it to 15 000 by the year 2000 by the establishment of two more universities. The current enrolment in universities, other than the Open University, works out to only 2% of the relevant age group. This figure is reckoned to be too low by any international standard and the increasing number of students qualifying for admission has to be accommodated. It is probable that future governments will further accelerate this quantitative expansion until Sri Lanka's rate of participation in full time university education rises to an acceptable level in relation to that of other developing countries, say, at least 7-8%.

However, this quantitative expansion of the university system has been strongly resisted by many who point to the prevalent unemployment and under-employment among university graduates. It has been pointed out that the number of unemployed graduates is approximately 39 000 and with around 8500 - 10 000 students graduating from the universities each year the problems of graduate unemployment and under-employment are bound not only to remain but also to worsen with every year that passes.

## Strengthening of the Positive Role of the State in the Establishment, Management and Funding of Universities

All universities are state universities, established and funded predominantly (about 95%) by the state. The income from endowments is negligible and there is minimum cost recovery. All tuition at undergraduate level is free for Sri Lankan students irrespective of parental income. Fees are charged from postgraduate students, overseas students and students of the Open University as well as external students at regular universities. A private fee levying College established for the education of medical

students was nationalized in the eighties after the eruption of violent agitation against it by students of the regular universities. Although the economy came to be liberalized commencing 1977 after a long pro-socialist dominance it is very likely that private universities or the levying of tuition fees at undergraduate level in the regular universities will still invite violent opposition.

As long as there was only one university in the country it continued to be directly under the Ministry of Education with no co-ordinating body in between. However, when the number of universities increased to three the need for a co-ordinating body was felt and a body styled National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) was established for this purpose. The NCHE functioned from 1965 to 1972, approximately.

From 1972 to 1977 a novel solution was experimented with whereby all the universities existing in the island at the time became different campuses of one single university which became the co-ordinating authority that laid down the guidelines for the different campuses to follow in organizing their activities. Teaching, examinations and research were conducted by the different `campuses'.

The government that came to power in 1977 terminated this arrangement and while restoring the independent university status of the campuses established a University Grants Commission on the lines of the University Grants Committee that existed in the UK at the time to perform similar functions and more. The UGC has now been in existence for twenty years and the universities have become weary under the uniformity enforced by the UGC and have begun to long for a little autonomy and independence for them to develop in their own different ways.

The government provides the UGC with an annual block grant to cover approximately 95% of the annual allocation to the universities which until very late were made primarily on a historical basis. However, the current trend is to base the allocations on unit costs.

Each university is managed by a Council consisting of both lay and academic members but tilted in favour of the lay element. On academic matters the Council is advised by the Senate which in term is advised by the different Faculty Boards consisting of all permanent teachers of the faculty concerned and student representatives.

To start with each university made its own admissions itself based on the results of a special entrance examination. Later admissions came to be made by each university independently on the results of the A-level examination. Very soon, however, admissions came to be centralised and are now effected by the UGC based on the results of the A-level examination. The universities receive their allocation of students from UGC.

## Experimenting With New Types of Institutions and New Courses

The first university institutions to be established in the country followed the general pattern of UK universities, especially Oxbridge. They offered mostly courses leading to academic degrees of 3 - 4 years' duration. Only the science based professional courses were a little different.

At the beginning everything appeared to be evenly balanced. The university could enroll almost everyone who qualified and on passing out all graduates were more or less able to obtain suitable employment. However, with the passage of time, and with the continuing democratization of secondary education the numbers knocking on university doors increased. Even with a number of universities enrolling students a large number of secondary school students who had obtained the necessary qualifications for entry to universities were shut out of the universities. Having followed only an academic university - oriented course and lacking in technical and vocational abilities these students were left totally frustrated. On the other hand the economy remained more or less stationary or experienced only a very slow growth and did not generate enough openings for university graduates being produced in large numbers. This resulted in large scale graduate unemployment which was sometimes erroneously represented as a `mismatch' between education and employment. In order to overcome these twin problems, frustration after A-levels and unemployment after the degree, those in authority began to look for new institutions of university level that would

1. syphon off a fair number of A-level qualified persons who fail to get into university,

2. provide students with marketable, technical or professional skills, and

3. limit the production of unemployable graduates.

As an answer to this search the Junior University was experimented with during the period 1965 - 1970. These junior universities were conceived on the lines of junior colleges and they offered job-oriented courses like journalism, librarianship, foreign languages, home science, management etc. leading to a diploma in contrast with the academic degree courses offered by the universities. It was expected that the middle level cadre in various fields required by the country would come from the junior universities. However, this experiment was short-lived for the next government in 1970 converted these institutions into polytechnics which later became technical colleges retaining only a very small number of courses at a lower level.

A similar experiment was attempted during the period 1991-1995. The Affiliated University Colleges were a new type of institution of higher learning that were set up in the provinces commencing 1991. The courses offered by these colleges called AUCs, were professionally or vocationally oriented and targeted to specific areas of employment. Among the courses offered were the following: Accountancy and Finance, Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management, Home Science and Nutrition, Agriculture, Hotel Management, Travel and Tourism, Food Science and Technology. Work experience in related areas was to be encouraged and due credit to be given to such experience wherever relevant. At the end of the first year of successful study students were to be issued a Certificate. At this point students could opt to leave for employment or continue their studies for another year and obtain a Diploma. The possibility of obtaining a degree on resumption of studies after one or two years of practical experience after the Diploma was not ruled out. It was envisaged that eventually these AUCs would develop into autonomous national technological universities. Until such time, however, these AUCs were to be affiliated to the national universities which would closely monitor their academic programme as well as award the qualification. The Junior Universities that functioned in the late 60's were a similar

set of institutions but their technological character was less pronounced. Also they were not associated with universities in any way.

However, once again with the change of government in 1994 this experiment came to an end. The AUCs were abolished, two of them being made universities and the others turned into campuses of existing national universities.

One constituent element of the university reforms that came in the wake of the first youth uprising of 1971 was the introduction of a number of 'job-oriented' degree or diploma courses in the university. It was thought that students following these courses would find it easier to obtain employment than normal graduates passing out with an academic degree. Accordingly the following courses were introduced: Public Finance and Taxation, Estate Management and Valuation, Development Studies. However, the expected smooth transfer to employment did not take place because the employees already serving in the departments resisted the induction of outsiders at senior levels at the expense of the promotional prospects of the former. Also there weren't sufficient openings to absorb everyone qualifying. These courses were dropped in the university reforms of 1978.

In order to provide professional and technological courses a number of institutes affiliated to universities have been established, for example, the Institute of Computer Technology, the Institute of Indigenous Medicine and Surgery and the Institute of Aesthetic Studies.

## Concern with Quality Improvement

In keeping with the liberal economic policies first adopted in 1977 the role of the state departments and state corporations as employers of the products of the schools and the universities is on the decline and youth are increasingly forced to turn to the private sector, the new engine of growth, for employment. However, the private sector employers are not enamoured of the products of the state sector educational institutions and fight shy of employing them. For one thing the university graduates are seen to be lacking in social, technical and managerial skills and are attitudinally deficient, being not quite up to the mark in initiative, resourcefulness, perseverance, team spirit and result-orientedness inter alia, qualities so important for the success of the private sector.

It is quite not the case that if all the unemployed graduates were endowed with these skills and qualities they would all find employment overnight but some note had to be taken of these criticisms leveled at the output of the universities, if not to help them find employment under private entrepreneurs, at least to enable them to establish themselves in self-employment.

The following measures are now being taken:

1. Reduction of the number of subjects to be offered at the A-level from four to three and the introduction of an aptitude paper. It is necessary to pass in this aptitude paper to gain admission, to a university. (Effective September 1998)

2. Improving graduates' knowledge of English and Computer.

3. Introducing the course unit system in universities.

4. Providing better physical facilities, library facilities and teaching and laboratory equipment.

5. Providing university teachers with a training in pedagogy for which purpose at least one university has established a Centre for Staff Development.

6. Undertaking Departmental Reviews by competent boards appointed for the purpose

## The Promotion of Graduate Studies and Research

In Sri Lankan universities which were organized on the lines of UK universities the Departments of study and the Faculties undertook both undergraduate teaching work and postgraduate teaching and research. However, in the absence of funding for research many students were not attracted to undertake postgraduate studies including research. Those who entered the professions and the public service on their first degree often proceeded to the UK for their postgraduate studies. When tuition fees in foreign universities and other expenses increased more students were inclined to turn to the local universities. Even university teachers immediately on recruitment are obliged to read for a local Master's degree. It is after completing the local Master's degree that they will be granted leave to proceed abroad if they so wish, to read for a doctorate. Special faculties of graduate studies have now been established in at least three universities to undertake graduate programmes.

Postgraduate Institutes, with their own boards of management and functioning directly under the UGC but affiliated to some university, exercise more independence and autonomy than Faculties of Graduate Studies. Already Postgraduate Institutes exist in the areas of medicine, agriculture, architecture, management and Buddhist and Pali studies. Researchers are encouraged to have an eye on local needs.

## Conclusion

It is hoped the above picture will make it possible to isolate a few trends at least. The National Education Commission and the Presidential Task Force on Higher Education are considering ways and means of introducing curricular changes in order to bring university education in line with needs of commerce and industry. It is expected that further changes will be made in the near future.

## Thailand: Varaporn Bovornsiri

The evolution of Thai higher education especially of public universities can date back to 1917 when the first institution; Chulalongkorn University, was formally established through the amalgamation of the School of Civil Servants, the Royal Medical College and the Engineering School. Since then, tertiary level of education has expanded rapidly. Presently, there are 24 public universities and 41 private higher education institutions under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of University Affairs. There are also other types of higher education institutions under various ministries, such as Ministry of Education, Ministry of Public Health, and Ministry of Defence.*

In this paper, however, the focus will be on major trends in respect of Thai higher education reforms which have taken place for the past ten years.

One of the most important trends is the establishment of public autonomous universities. Thai universities with a long history usually have a departmental status. Each of them is operated like a part of government administrative system. Faculty staff and other personnel are public servants. Suranaree University of Technology, which was established in 1990 in Nakhon Ratchasima province of the Northeastern Region, is the first public autonomous university. It is external to the government administrative system and under direct general supervision of the Minister of University Affairs. It has its own financial, personnel, academic, and general administrative systems customized to its characteristics and missions to ensure high operational efficiency as well as to fulfill international standards in its educational programs. For example, as regards its financial and property system, it has a block-grant budgeting system, financial statement reporting and post auditing system, computerized funds, accounting system, and general finance and property rules and procedures (Suranaree University of Technology, 1996) Since the inception of Suranaree University of Technology, there have been more public universities following in their footsteps.

Walailak University, which was founded in 1992 in Nakhon Si Thammarat province of the Southern region, is the second public autonomous university. Like Suranaree University of Technology, it is independent of the government bureaucracy and receives government financial support in the form of a block grant.

King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Thonburi also became a public autonomous university in early 1998. It has been renamed King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi.

Mae Fah Luang University, presently in its founding process in Chiang Rai province of the Northern Region, will be another public autonomous university. As planned, the university will have its first student enrollment in 1999.

With a pressing need for an efficient higher education system spurred by political pressure as well as the contract agreement with the Asian Development Bank for higher

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* For more information, please see A Report on Survey of Study Programmes and of Diplomas, Degrees and Other Certificates granted by Higher Education Institutions in Asia and the Pacific (Thailand) (compiled by SEAMEO RIHED with support from UNESCO PROAP)

education loan assistance, all public universities are required to become autonomous within the year 2002.

Another trend is the reform of teacher education, teaching profession and educational personnel development. The objectives of this reform are to improve public faith in teaching profession, to develop teachers' professional commitment, to raise the standard of both academic and professional abilities of teachers and to upgrade the status of the teaching profession. The master plan of teacher education reform was approved in March 1996 by the Council of Ministers, which also authorized the establishment of special project for implementation of the reform. Accordingly, the Office of the National Education Commission has founded the Teacher Education Reform Office to take responsibility for managing and following up the operation. The operational guidelines are based on seven components: coordination, overall innovation, networking, contracting, experimentation, project-based and technology - oriented functioning (Office of the National Education Commission, 1997)

During 1998-2002 the emphasis will be on the development of teachers and administrators of public and private educational institutions, especially at the secondary education level. The development focuses on quality and educational standards in the areas of mathematics, science (physics, chemistry, biology, and computer), as well as the English and Thai languages. One of the on-going pilot projects is the National Teacher Project. In this project, 14 teachers from the 4 aforementioned areas of study have been selected from secondary schools nationwide to set up networking for the development of teacher education and the teaching profession.

The development of a quality assurance system is another major trend of higher education reform. The Ministry of University Affairs announced a policy and implementation guidelines on quality assurance at higher education level in 1996. It has continued to design quality assurance system and develop accreditation standards and procedures. It also emphasizes internal quality mechanisms within higher education institutions (Ministry of University Affairs, 1998b). For example, higher education institutions have developed evaluation instruments on teaching and learning processes. They have also devised various strategies to meet quality assurance of the whole institution in accordance with their missions and philosophies.

In the era of globalization, more and more international programs have been offered in both public and private higher education institutions under the supervision of Ministry of University Affairs. In 1998, both Thai public and private universities offer altogether 321 international programs using English as a medium of instruction both at undergraduate and graduate levels. Of 321 international programs, there are 123 undergraduate programs in 70 areas of study in 25 universities; 155 master's degree programs in 112 areas of study in 21 universities, and 43 doctoral degree programs in 32 areas of study in 11 universities (Ministry of University Affairs, 1998a). International programs, as stated in the national education policy, will play a vital role in promoting Thai universities to become leading educational centers in the Asia and the Pacific region and in the world community.

Another major trend is the opening up of public universities in various provinces outside of Bangkok, the capital city of Thailand. Before 1990, there were 16 public universities, of which 12 universities were located in Bangkok and only 4 universities in

different regions. In 1990, 4 public universities were founded outside of Bangkok. Burapha University was established in Chonburi province of the Eastern Region, Naresuan University in Phitsanulok province of the Northern Region, Suranaree University of Technology in Nakhon Rachasima province of the Northeastern Region and Ubon Rachathani University in Ubon Ratchathani province of the Northeastern Region. In 1992, Walailuk University was founded in Nakhon Si Thammarat province of the Southern Region. Two years later, Mahasarakham University was founded in Mahasarakham province of the Northeastern Region. Thaksin University was subsequently founded in Songkla province of the Southern Region in 1996. Mae Fah Luang University was founded in Chiang Rai province of the Northern Region in 1997. This phenomenon of establishing all new public universities outside of Bangkok is deemed to decentralize higher education to various regions of the country, with a result of higher education becoming more widely and easily accessible to a larger population. These public universities have adopted a quota system of recruiting students from nearby provinces.

The role of private higher education has increased remarkably during these past ten years. Since 1988, there have been 22 private universities and colleges founded (out of the total 41 private institutions under the Ministry of University Affairs). Private higher education institutions are more competitive compared with public universities owing to their flexible administration within institutions. New admittance to private higher education institutions were 52,014, 56,665 and 60,550 in the academic years 1994, 1995 and 1996 respectively. Total enrollments were 147,301, 157,716 and 171,332 in the academic years 1994, 1995 and 1996 respectively. The number of graduates stood at 26,490 and 26,665 in the 1994 and 1995 academic year respectively (Ministry of University Affairs, 1996). Besides increasing enrollment, private higher education institutions have had a higher ratio of faculty recruitment as compared with that in public universities. For example, during the academic years 1992-1994, the faculty recruitment accounted for an average of 15 percent in private universities while the figures for public universities were averaged at 5-6 percent. Also beginning in 1998, private higher education institutions can offer degree programs in teacher education, the programs which used to be offered only by public higher education institutions.

Another trend of the reform is the establishement of University Network (UNI NET) using information technology to link universities all over the country. The purpose is to use information technology to provide more opportunities to accesss to higher education institutions.

Thai higher education reform during the past ten years has steadily contributed to higher efficiency of the system and better quality of education. Higher education institutions must always be aware of the continuing need to improve education in order to achieve academic excellence and to fulfill their missions.

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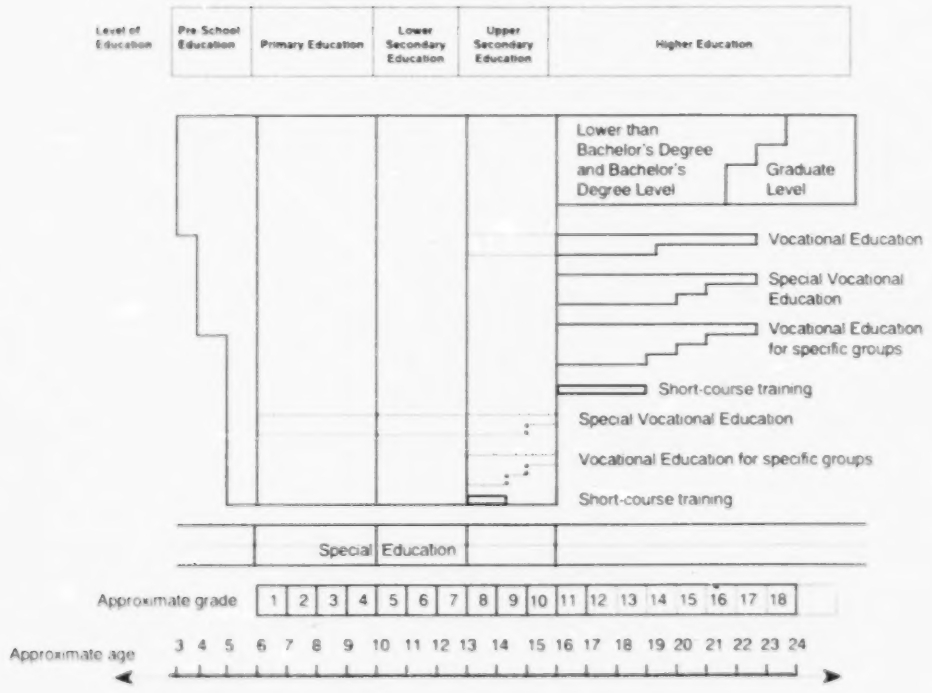
Appendix

## Thai National Education System


Level of Education
Pre School Education
Primary Education
Lower Secondary Education
Upper Secondary Education
Higher Education
Lower than Bachelor's Degree and Bachelor's Degree Level
Graduate Level
Vocational Education
Special Vocational Education
Vocational Education for specific groups
Short-course training
Special Vocational Education
Vocational Education for specific groups
Short-course training
Special Education
Approximate grade
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
Approximate age
3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

## United Kingdom: Cloud Yun Howlett-Bai

In the United Kingdom the Secretary of State for Education and Employment (DfEE) is responsible for all aspects and levels of education in England, and for higher education in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The Secretaries of State for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are responsible for all non-university education in their countries.

In recent years, particularly the 1988 Education Reform Act made significant changes to policy and practice at all levels of the education system. The Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 continued and extended further the process of change. Recent government-commissioned reports produced by Lord Dearing have led to further considerable changes in post-16 qualifications and training and in university policy and practice. The main purpose of many of the changes is to foster increased breadth in the post-16 curriculum, the ability to combine academic with vocational qualifications and training, and the development of key skills for effective learning and effective performance in the workplace.

The Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 brought tertiary colleges, colleges of further education and six-form colleges into a unified further education sector. Subsequently the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC) was established to fund these colleges and to assure that further education and training provision is adequate. The main purpose of FE colleges is to provide opportunities for post-16 students to participate in a variety of vocational and academic courses in order to facilitate entry to occupation or higher education.

Among the main effects of the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 were:

- The ending of the binary system of higher education by which the 'traditional' universities and the polytechnics were treated separately.
- The abolition of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA), leaving the majority of institutions to award their own degrees.
- The creation of Higher Education Funding Councils for England (HEFCE), Scotland (SHEFC) and Wales (HEFCW).

In the United Kingdom higher education is defined as study above GCE Advanced level (that is, the GCE A level, the Scottish equivalent, or Advanced GNVQ/NVQ level 3). Higher education in the United Kingdom has undergone enormous growth and changes in recent years. Britain now has an extensive, diverse, dynamic and innovative higher education system. Britain remains a high quality provider of higher education in all its many modern forms.

Higher education in the United Kingdom is now provided in two types of institutions: universities and colleges of higher education. Universities and other institutions of higher education are state-maintained, except for one private Univresity, i.e. the University of Buckingham. From 1998-1999 academic year students in certain income categories will be required to make contributions by paying fees up to a maximum of £ 1,000 per year (details are available separately).

## Universities

In the United Kingdom, universities are independent, self-governing bodies, empowered by a Royal Charter or an Act of Parliament to develop their own courses and award their own degrees. Any amendment of their charters or statutes is made by the Crown acting through the Privy Council on the application of the universities themselves. The universities alone decide what degrees they award and the conditions on which they are awarded; they alone decide what students to admit and what staff to appoint.

The standards of universities are maintained by their extensive use of external examiners, particularly in the case of older universities, and the activities of the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) which reports on universities' teaching and research quality in a rolling four-year programme. The QAA and the external examiner system work to ensure that standards of degrees and degree awards are of the same standard form one institution to another.

The majority of universities, especially the older ones, are active in both teaching and research, though it is possible that in future years some universities may be designated as exclusively research institutions. The universities of the United Kingdom may be considered as falling into ten main types. These are:

### The universities of Oxford and Cambridge

The most distinctive feature of theses universities is the college system. The colleges are completely autonomous as regards their property, finances and internal affairs, but it is the university which awards degrees and determines the conditions on which they are awarded. Students becomes members of the university by being admitted as members of their colleges. Their studies are largely guided by the senior members of their colleges.

### The four older Scottish universities

St Andrews University (founded 1411), Glasgow University (1451), University of Aberdeen (1495) and University of Edinburgh (1583) are the four older Scottish universities. The tradition of the Scottish universities does not reflect the residential character of the Oxford and Cambridge colleges.

### The University of London

The University of London was constituted by Royal Charter in 1836 as a body empowered to examine and confer degrees on students of an approved institutions. Until 1900 its work was restricted to these functions, but in administering them it influenced and co-ordinated the activities of the various other colleges of university rank founded from time to time in London. From 1858 London University degrees, other than in medicines, were made available for students other than those in certain recognised institutions. the external degrees of the University continue to provide, both in the UK and overseas, an academic award of high standing for part-time students and others who are not enrolled in a university. The University now not only is a teaching as well as a degree-awarding body but it has also become a federation which incorporates medical schools associated with hospitals, non-medical colleges, together with a number of

postgraduate and other institutions. Some other higher education establishments in London are also affiliated to the University.

**The University of Wales**

The University consists of constituent university colleges and a medical school.

**The 'modern' or 'civic' universities**

The civic universities mostly originated in the university colleges set up in large towns and cities in the latter half of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth. Until they became universities in their own right, the colleges offered courses leading to the external degrees of London university. The 'modern' universities include: The University of Durham, The Queen's University of Belfast, The Victoria University of Manchester, The University of Birmingham, The University of Liverpool, The University of Leeds, The University of Sheffield, The University of Bristol, The University of Reading, The University of Nottingham, The University of Southampton, The University of Hull, The University of Exeter, The University of Leceister, The University of Newcastle upon Tyne and The University of Dundee.

**The 'New' universities**

The 'new' universities include The University of Sussex, The University of Essex, The University of Keele, The University of York, The University of East Anglia, The University of Kent at Canterbury, The University of Lancaster, The University of Warwick, The University of Stirling and The University of Ulster. These universities were established in the 1960s except for The University of Ulster which was founded in 1984. The 'new' universities were established to meet the need for more university places. The most distinctive features of these universities are that they are empowered from the outset to award their own degrees and that they design courses which break down the conventional departmental structure and enable undergraduates to study in a range of different subject areas with equal specialisation.

**The technological universities**

There exist ten new technological universities which received their status as a result of the Robbins Report on Higher Education (1963). These are Aston University, Bath University of Technology, The University of Bradford, Brunel University, City University (London), Heriot-Watt University, Loughborough University of Technology, The University of Salford, The University of Strathclyde and The University of Surrey.

**The Open University**

The Open University is a non-residential distance teaching university. It received its Royal Charter in 1969. There are no formal entry requirements for admission to undergraduate degree courses, which are based on a credit system. Teaching is conducted by means of a combination of printed materials, face-to-face tuition, short residential schools, radio, television, audio and video tapes and computers. The

University also offers continuing education courses including in-service training for teachers, updating courses for managers, scientists and technologists.

### The post-1992 universities

The Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 led to the dissolution of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) which validated the degrees awarded of the then polytechnics. The polytechnics were granted full university status, with the full range of degree-awarding powers. Many of the institutions changed their name to reflect their new status. There are altogether 39 polytechnic universities.

### The University of Buckingham

The University was founded as the University College at Buckingham, a privately financed institution. It received its Royal Charter in 1983 and was constituted by the name of The University of Buckingham. The University continues to be privately financed and offers two-year courses which now lead to the degree of Bachelor.

## Colleges and Institutions of higher education (CIHEs)

Many colleges of higher education also award degrees through their affiliation with a university. These colleges have developed from varied origins, many remaining specialist colleges. They provide a wide range of vocational and academic courses. Previously degrees from CIHEs were awarded by the CNAA, now a first degree is granted by an accredited validating body.

In the United Kingdom institutions seeking permission to award degrees are required to demonstrate that they have a commitment to quality assurance and adequate systems for safeguarding academic standards. Institutions wishing to use the title University, must be authorised to award both taught and research degrees. The Government is advised on these matters by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA). Higher education in the UK was subject to five main forms of quality assurance:

- institutions' own internal quality assurance processes
- academic quality audit (hitherto undertaken by the Higher Education Quality Council: the new Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education took over this function from 1 August 1997)
- quality assessment (hitherto undertaken separately by the three higher education funding councils for England, Scotland and Wales: the QAA has taken over the delivery of the assessment process from 1 October 1997, except in Scotland (but the funding councils retain the legal responsibility for ensuring that quality is assessed.)
- professional accreditation of vocational and professional subjects (undertaken by a range of professional and statutory bodies)
- the research assessment exercise (undertaken jointly by the three higher education funding councils)

All UK universities and colleges have been audited since 1991 and a fresh round of such audits has now begun. This new round, known as 'continuation audit', has changed its focus and is now looking both at the more general question of how individual institutions discharge their obligations and responsibilities for the academic standards and quality of their programmes and awards, and at the evidence they themselves are relying on for this purpose. This audit procedure is an interim stage towards the development and implementation of the proposals for quality assurance contained in the 1997 Dearing Report. In addition, a national framework for higher education qualifications, as recommended in the Dearing Report, is under development in which all higher education awards would have a consistent terminology.

There has in recent years been an enormous expansion in UK universities' and colleges' international activities, and especially in programmes delivered collaboratively with overseas institutions. HEQC published at the end of 1995 a code of practice for institutions engaged in overseas partnerships to safeguard the quality and standards of higher education.

British universities and colleges take quality and standards very seriously. This is a clear indication of the importance which British institutions, and those who fund and supervise them, attach to protecting quality and standards of higher education. It is also part of a national drive to secure educational standards at all levels.

# Vietnam: Dang Xuan Hai.

## 1. Background Information.

**1.1 Vietnam** stretches along a 3,000 kilometres section of the south China sea, extending from China in the north, and sharing borders with Laos and Cambodia to the west. The total area of the country is 332,000 square kilometres. Vietnam is endowed with natural resources, sizeable forest cover and reserves of coal, petroleum, natural gas and hydroelectric potential.

The population, estimated at 78 million in 1998, is growing at an average annual rate of 2.2 percent. Almost 80 percent of the people are based in rural areas. Vietnam remains one the poorest countries in the region with a per capita income estimated at 280 US$ in 1998. Literacy race of over 90%. With the adoption in 1986 by the sixth party congress of the renovation programme for social and economic reform known as Doi Moi, the economy is currently in rapid transition. The measures adopted were immediately effective. The GDP increase rate was 8.5% per annum (1991-1997).

The estimated labour force in Vietnam is above 38 million and is distributed as follow: 72% are employed in the agricultural area, 11% in industry and 17% in other areas. Employment generation remains a heated and pressing issue in Vietnam.

To achieve the economic growth envisaged, high external efficiency of the education and training system will be essential. Most of the new labour force entrants, and many of the unemployed, will require training for employment. For instance, Vietnam is currently facing a critical shortage of entrepreneurs and managers needed for development in almost all sectors of the economy.

### 1.2 National Education System

The national education system of Vietnam has changed many times (in 1950 and from 1956-1978 and in 1993). The new education system according to the governmental decision No90/CP on November 24th, 1993 consists of five sub-systems: Pre-school education, General education, Vocational-technical education, Higher education, and Continuing education (with the structure 5-4-3-4).

Pre-school education is composed of crèche for 3 years and Kindergarten for 3 years. From 6 years old children are admitted to primary education (5 years) leading to the certificate of primary education. After that most of them continue to basic secondary education (4 years) and some of them may be admitted to vocational training for 1 year. On finishing basic secondary education, with the certificate some of those children can continue to upper secondary school for 3 years or technical or vocational for 3-4 years . In addition some of them may be admitted to vocational training for 1-2 years. Finishing upper secondary education usually at the age of 18 or after 12 years of schooling pupils have to take the national school leaving examination. With a diploma from upper secondary school or diploma of general education (TuTai) a student can take part in the entrance exams of H.E institutions. For under-graduate level there is either short-term higher education (3 years) or long-term H.E(4-6 years) of regular full-time education or

part-time education (and in-service education of continuing education). For post-graduate level there are Master's programmes (2 years) and doctoral programmes (2-4 years).

### 1.3 Higher Education System.

*Types of H.E institutions:*

Until 1993 Vietnam did not have large multi-disciplinary universities. The system was characterised by a large number of small and scattered institutions with poor facilities, weak and inefficient management and narrowly specialised programmes that did not train students for available jobs. It was not a system conducive to investment in human resource development and improvement of physical facilities. The mono-disciplinary models limited the capacity to organise training on a wide scale and to associate research and social service comprehensively. So one important tasks for Vietnamese higher education system to amalgamate the institutions.

From the end of 1993 some big multi-disciplinary universities have been established by merging former small H.E. institution: Hanoi National University (12/1993), Universities of Hue, ThaiNguyen, DaNang (4/1994), HoChiMinh National University (1/1995). According to the statistical data in 1997 of the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), the number of H.E institutions is 126 (110 public, 16 private, not including the system of the military and secutary H.E institutions) and distributed according to the following:

- National H.E. institutions of various specialities: 46
- National and Provincial Teacher Training Junior Colleges: 46.
- Other Junior Colleges: 17
- Private H.E Colleges: 16 (Including 1 Junior College)
- Community College: 1

At present the total number of students in H.E institutions is 716,839 among them 414,434 are full time long-term students (Including 44,838 in Private H.E Colleges) of which 48% are women.

The number of teacher is 25,782 (Including 1,702 in Private H.E Colleges) of which 36% are women and 15% hold doctoral degrees.

The MOET manages directly 30 important institutions (Including allocation of the budget and decisions on personnel and function). Two newly established Hanoi and HoChiMinh City National Universities have more or less autonomy. Other ministries (especially Health, Culture and Art) supervise the related monodisciplinary institutions. The provincial authorities govern the junior colleges in their territories.

The under-graduate level has been divided into two phases: first phase mainly for general higher education (or foundation knowledge); the second phase for professional education. The MOET will approve the establishment of new majors, the exam regulation and the granting of degrees. The MOET will also allocate budgets to major

research projects and monitor the implementation. Since 1998 divided phases in training process will be more flexible. The MOET authorises H.E institutions to decide dividing phases in the training process. Selection and competition during learning.

However, all institutions are under the management of MOET regarding the academic aspect, despite the fact that they are under the direct supervision of provinces or other ministries; this means the MOET will promulgate and manage the admission regulations, the general structure of curricula and the granting of degrees.

The organisational structure of H.E mono-disciplinary institutions in Vietnam is as follow: The rector has been designated by the minister of MOET after an election, the rector has vice-rector(s) to support him (The number of vice-rectors depends on the scope of the institution). In addition the rector has an academic section, a finance and equipment section, a science management etc. The institution is divided into various departments according to the disciplines of the training fields. Again, each department will be divided into smaller sections specializing in one or two areas of training. In addition, the rector has some consultation bodies such as the consultation council which consists of the Deans and prestigious heads of the sections. At the department level, the department council which includes Heads of the section and famous professors will help the Dean. The multi-disciplinary university is a new model in Vietnam an either organization structure is the subject of investigation. Community colleges should be established to meet the manpower resource of each community and their organizational structure is also being investigated.

*Study programmes:*

The general structure of curricula and minimum number of credits for various level in H.E system (According to the Decision No 2677 of MOET-Vietnam)

| Level | type of H.E. Institutions | Total (credits) | General H.E. | Professional | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Total | Core | Major | Minor | Thesis |
| Diploma or Associate Degrees | Technical of the first type | 120 | 30 | 90 | | 45 | 25 | |
| | Technical of the second type | 180 | 30 | 150 | | 45 | | |
| | Professional of the first type | 120 | 50 | 70 | | 45 | 25 | |
| | Professional of the second type | 160 | 50-90 | 70-110 | | 45 | | |
| | Teacher (3 years) | 160 | 90 | 70 | 45 | | | |
| Bachelor Degrees | 4 years | 210 | 90 | 120 | | 45 | 25 | 10 |
| | 5 years | 270 | 90 | 180 | | 45 | 25 | 15 |
| | 6 years | 320 | 90 | 230 | | 45 | 25 | 15 |
| | teacher (4 years) | 210 | 90 | 120 | 45 | 45 | 25 | 5 |

Notes: a. The credit has been determined as one class-period for theory learning at school in a week lasting one semester or some equivalent hours for practising, experimenting or writing a term paper, etc... Each semester in Vietnam has 15 weeks for real learning (with about 30 class-periods for a learning week). In fact the quality of the credits in Vietnam may be less the study load than a credit in some other countries.

b. Technical colleges of the first type (for 2 years) are for vocational certificate holders. The second ones (3 years) for the holders of general education diplomas (without vocational skills).

The school year of the H.E institutions in Vietnam is usually divided into 2 semesters. The first semester normally starts in the middle of September and ends in the middle of January (About 15 weeks of study ). The second semester starts in the middle of February and ends in the beginning of June (In some H.E institutions, an additional summer semester is organized). An attainment of 30 credits is expected each semester.

*Admission requirement*

In order to take part in H.E. exams the upper secondary students have to succeed in the national school leaving exam. There have been many changes in student admissions in recent years. By 1987 the entrance exam for the whole H.E institution was administered by the MOET. Since 1988 the selection process has been turned over to each institution. Students are required to take exams before being admitted to H.E institutions (Except excellent graduates from upper secondary). There is big competition in the entrance exam in order to be admitted to H. E. institutions.

## 2. Concepts and Measure Introduced into Vietnam's H. E. System

**2.1 Before 1990** H.E System of Vietnam was characterized by following concepts:

*a. Objectives of higher education:* Training of scientific and technical manpower for state organizations and enterprises.

*b. Planing and management of higher education:*

- Centralized planning of admission and training.
- Almost all education activities funded by state central budget.
- Distribution of jobs-employment after graduation.

*c. Organization of tearing-learning process:*

- All students admitted would have a government financial fellowship, and almost all would graduate as planned.
- Narrow specialization from the start .
- Single curriculum; no possibility of individual learning.

*d. Organization of R&D and social service activities:*

- By state planning with state funding; voluntary non-profit services.

*e. Institutional administration:* Passive participation of staff members and students in the decision making and administration activities.

**2.2 After 1990** particularly since 1993 significant progress has been made in the development and strengthening of higher education in Vietnam leading to improved student access, renewed curricula, addition of new teaching and delivery methods. At present H.E. system of Vietnam is characterized by the following concepts:

*a. Objectives of higher education:*

- Training of specialists for all sectors of the national economy and social activities.
- To meet the need of the people in knowledge and culture.

*b. Planning and management of higher education:*

- Decentralized planning at provincial and sector level with central co-ordination.
- Training according to contracts. To meet students' individual requests.
- Funding provided by state central budget, provincial and sectorial budgets
- By tuition fees; By contract with employers
- By R&D and service activities of universities and colleges
- By planning, by contracts
- Employment arrangements by students themselves

*c. Organization of teaching learning process:*

- Universities and colleges organise their entrance examinations with different dates; one-third only have fellowships; selection and competition during learning
- Wide profile of training; 2 blocks of knowledge: wide foundation knowledge and specialized programmes for undergraduate training
- Modular programme/credit system
- Acceptance of individual learning

*d. Organization of R&D and social service activities:*

- By state planning and funding
- By contracts, social service non-profit. Contribution to university and college budgets, supplementary staff salaries

*e. Institutional administration:*

- Large and more active participation
- Promotion of leading cadres based on vote by staff members and with student participation

## 3. Issues of higher education in Vietnam.

**3.1** As with many nations Vietnam is still far from achieving a number of goals including the desirable number and quality of graduates. While facing serious challenges before entering the 21st century, which come mainly from the following:

+ Increasing demand and enrolment, declining public funding and pressure for diversifying funding sources, which requires formulation of a new balance between government intervention, market element and institution autonomy and brings about, in a sense, a new and challenging environment;

+ Pressing impact of rapid change and progress in science and technology, in particular on the delivery mode, structure, contents, management and networking of higher education at the system as well as institutional levels.

+ Growing social concern over quality and relevance of programme and course, mismatch in the demand for and supply of highly trained personnel, which result in both graduate unemployment on the one hand and shortage on the other.

+ Series of dilemmas facing higher education systems and institutions in adoption of policies and strategies for the 21st century in dealing with issues such as quantitative expansion, equity and quality assurance; marketization, linkage with industry and university, mission and autonomy; networking, internationalization, adaptation and cultural identify; etc...

**3.2 Nowadays**, in particular, higher education in Vietnam faces the following problems:

- The quality and efficiency of education are still low. Most university graduates do not have the adequate capacity to cope with rapid industrial and technological changes.
- Social equality in the area of education has not been well realized. Children from poor families meet many difficulties for continuing their studies.
- The teaching staff is both weak and insufficient in number; at the higher education level the proportion of teachers with graduate degrees is still low.
- The problem of control of quality and management of private H. E. institutions
- The main causes of these weaknesses are:
- Education management, in various aspects, is still weak and inefficient.
- The linkage between knowledge and skill provided by university programmes and real needs of industry is weak. Teaching and training methods change very slowly and do not produce students capable of initiative and creative thinking.
- Education and training activities are not closely linked to production and research.

## 4. Policy for future development in order to cope with those issues and problems

In coming years, great effort will be concentrated on enhancing the quality of education and training. The on-going redefinition of objectives, contents and curricula should be conducted under careful monitoring of methods and organizational arrangements. Special attention should be paid to the following necessary problems:

- Diversifying funding sources and more efficient use of budget resources.
- Staff development motivation.
- Renovation of educational management.
- Enhancing the financial priority and facilities.

- Increase of autonomy and accountability of H.E institutions in accreditation procedures.

Another important consideration in quality of higher education and training in the year to come it's relevance to the needs of the country's industrialisation and modernization. Vietnam can take advantage of international achievements in education and science and technology when designing and implementing the education and training renovation of the country. It is hoped that, through this process most H.E institutions will reach the standards of the institutions of developed countries by the year 2020.

Nowadays Vietnam has recognised education and training is one of the highest national priorities. Investment in education is considered one of the principal directions for investment for development to enter the 21st century.

# Appendix II: NARIC Information*

## What is the NARIC network ?

The NARIC network is an initiative of the European Commission and was created in 1984. The network aims at improving academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study in the Member States of the EU and the EEA countries. The network is part of the Community's Programme, which stimulates the mobility of students and staff between higher education institutions in these countries.

All EU and EEA States have designated national centres, the purpose of which is to assist in promoting the mobility of students, teachers and researchers by providing authoritative advice and information concerning the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study undertaken in other States. The main users of this service are higher education institutions, students and their advisers, parents, teachers and prospective employers.

In most cases, these centres are also responsible for work related to the implementation of the joint Council of Europe (http://culture.coe.fr) and UNESCO (http://www.cepes.ro) Convention on the recognition of qualifications concerning higher education in the European region.

## What is the status of the NARICs?

The NARICs were designated by the Ministries of Education in the respective countries, but the status and the scope of work of individual NARICs may differ. In the majority of States, institutions of higher education are autonomous, taking their own decisions on the admission of foreign students and the exemption of parts of courses of study programmes that students may be granted on the basis of education undertaken abroad. As a result, most NARICs do not take decision, but offer on request information and advice on foreign education systems and qualifications.

## What is academic recognition?

When comparing academic qualifications from different countries, one might make a distinction between equivalence and recognition. Equivalence is usually understood to refer to a detailed comparison of the individual course elements which constitute a study programme. Recognition is a more global approach to evaluation, mainly concerned with the whole of a student's education. Usually this is a degree or diploma, but it could also be a period of study which a student has completed. More than equivalence, recognition looks into the function and overall level of academic study for purposes of admission to further study or work. In these cases, degrees or study periods may be recognised even when the degree programmes are not equivalent.

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* The original of this document is created by European Communities and distributed on its WEB site (http://europa.eu.int/en/comm/dg22/socrates/agenar.html). © European Communities, 1995-1998

An example of academic recognition would be if a graduate is granted a degree in another country on the basis of his/her studies in his/her home country, or if a student is admitted to further studies in another country without having to sit remedial or additional examinations.

## NARICs and professional recognition

Many of the EU NARICs have been nominated by their Member States to equally function as information points in the framework of the Council Directive 89/48/EEC on a general system for the recognition of higher education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration and the Council Directive 92/51/EEC which refers to the recognition of professional education and training at short cycle higher education and secondary level.

## What are the activities of the Network?

The Commission promotes close co-operation between the NARICs through:

- the organisation of regular (currently bi-annual) meetings of the heads of the centres;
- the award of special financial assistance within the Commission's "Study Visits" Scheme, to enable officials from the centres to visit their counterparts in other EU Member States or EEA countries in order to better understand national systems and procedures for academic recognition;
- the award of financial assistance, again within the framework of the programme, to facilitate the exchange of information, especially for the preparation of a computerised system of data exchange.

During the meetings, procedures for the recognition of the qualifications of one state in other EU states or EEA countries are usually discussed.

Individual NARICs use this information in their daily work. They can inform clients about the procedures for recognition in the respective States and refer to the authorities to which they have to apply for recognition. They can also advise their clients about foreign education systems and the approximate value that foreign diplomas are likely to be accorded in a given State.

## Publications

A guide to higher education systems and qualifications in the European Union and the EEA countries (the second edition in English will be available in early 1998).

Other publications are at present being prepared one of which being a directory of higher education qualifications awarded in each EU Member State or EEA country, giving the title and the level of the qualification.

List of NARIC key addresses:

| | Academic recognition NARIC |
|---|---|
| **België (Vlaamse Gemeenschap)** | **Erwin MALFROY**<br>Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap<br>Administratie van het Hoger Onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek<br>Koningsstraat 136<br>B - 1000 BRUSSEL<br>tel.: 32/2/211.42.47 fax: 32/2/211.42.52<br>e-mail: erwin.malfroy@vlaanderen.be |
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